

L'exemplaire filmé fut reproduit grâce à la générosité de:

**Bibliothèque générale,
Université Laval,
Québec, Québec.**

Les images suivantes ont été reproduites avec le plus grand soin, compte tenu de la condition et de la netteté de l'exemplaire filmé, et en conformité avec les conditions du contrat de filmage.

Les exemplaires originaux dont la couverture en papier est imprimée sont filmés en commençant par le premier plat et en terminant soit par la dernière page qui comporte une empreinte d'impression ou d'illustration, soit par le second plat, selon le cas. Tous les autres exemplaires originaux sont filmés en commençant par la première page qui comporte une empreinte d'impression ou d'illustration et en terminant par la dernière page qui comporte une telle empreinte.

Un des symboles suivants apparaîtra sur la dernière image de chaque microfiche, selon le cas: le symbole → signifie "A SUIVRE", le symbole ▼ signifie "FIN".

Les cartes, planches, tableaux, etc., peuvent être filmés à des taux de réduction différents. Lorsque le document est trop grand pour être reproduit en un seul cliché, il est filmé à partir de l'angle supérieur gauche, de gauche à droite, et de haut en bas, en prenant le nombre d'images nécessaire. Les diagrammes suivants illustrent la méthode.

3

1

2

3

2

3

5

6

ANCIENT HISTORY

D
59
A541
1918

8TH YEAR

DIPLOMA COURSE



MONTRÉAL

—
1918

GRANGER FRÈRES
Libraires, Papetiers, Importateurs
54 Notre-Dame Ouest Montréal

By the SISTERS OF THE CONGREGATION DE NOTRE DAME
OF MONTREAL,

1918

All rights reserved.

FOREWORD

This text-book has been prepared with a view of grouping and presenting in a clear and concise form the salient and essential facts demanded by the Syllabus of primary teaching. We have held to the program planned by the Council of Public Instruction and to the pedagogical notes inspiring it.

The "Summary of Events" printed in heavy type will serve as a preparation for the morrow's recitation. The development, in ordinary print, constructs an interesting and continuous narrative out of what is necessarily but the skeleton of history. This development corresponds faithfully to the Program of Studies and furnishes full information for the questions which should serve as a reasonable test of the pupils' knowledge.

The paragraphs in finer print give us supplementary matter which may be omitted at will, but the reading of them will elucidate certain points or show the connection between necessary facts.

Our aim throughout has been to link the study of Profane History with that of Bible Story, thus holding to the spirit as well as to the letter of the Program.

To facilitate reviews, each chapter closes with a synoptical table which may prove helpful in reproduction work.

study of
us hold-
Program,
, with a
roduction

CONTENTS.

THE ANCIENT EMPIRES

PART I.

CHAPTER I. — Subject matter of Ancient History. — Egypt; its situation. — The Old Empire. — The Middle Empire. — Decline of the Empire.	1
CHAPTER II. — Situation of Babylonia and Assyria. — First Babylonian Empire. — Assyrian Empire. — New Babylonian Empire.	13
CHAPTER III. — Situation of Media and Persia. — The Median Empire. — The Persian Empire: Cyrus, Darius. — Phoenicia.	24

PART II.

GREECE

CHAPTER I. — Geography of Greece. — Primitive Greece. — First Inhabitants. — Heroic Ages. — Theban War. — Trojan War.	31
CHAPTER II. — Lycurgus. — Solon. — Messenian Wars.	
CHAPTER III. — Median Wars. — Miltiades, Xerxes, Leonidas, Themistocles, Aristides, Cimon, Pericles.	37
CHAPTER IV. — Peloponnesian War. — Retreat of the Ten Thousand. — Pelopidas and Epaminondas.	54
CHAPTER V. — Philip of Macedon. — Alexander the Great.	63

PART III.

ROME

CHAPTER I. — Situation. — Foundation. — The Seven Kings	71
CHAPTER II. — The Consulate. — The Decemvirate. — Invasion of the Gauls.	77
CHAPTER III. — War against the Samnites. — Phryrus. — Punic Wars.	83
CHAPTER IV. — The Gracchi. — Marius and Sylla. — Cicero.	95
CHAPTER V. — Civil Wars under the Two Triumvirates.	104
CHAPTER VI. — The Twelve Cæsars. — Constantine. — Division of the Empire in 476. — Fall of the Eastern Empire in 453.	113

Seven	
... ...	71
ate. —	
... ...	77
rus. —	
... ...	83
la. —	
... ...	95
irates. 104	
ne. —	
astern	
... ...	113

ANCIENT HISTORY

PART FIRST

THE ANCIENT EMPIRES

CHAPTER FIRST.

THE EGYPTIANS.

OUTLINE : *Subject matter of Ancient History—Egypt. Its Situation — The Old Empire — The Middle Empire — Decline of the Empire.*

SUMMARY OF EVENTS.

- I. — Ancient History comprises historical facts from the most remote ages until the fall of the Western Empire in the fifth century of the Christian era. This history may be divided into three parts : The First Empires, Greece and Rome.
- II. — Egypt is the first country mentioned in history. It occupied the lower valley of the Nile.
- III. — The Old Empire was founded by Menes and lasted about fifteen centuries. The kings of this Empire settled at Memphis and built the Pyramids.
- IV. — The Middle Empire existed over a thousand years. During this period, the city of Thebes was built,

Lake Moeris was dug, and the Labyrinth was constructed. The invasion of the Hyksos or Shepherd Kings also took place during this period.

V. — The New Empire was noted, first, for its conquests; secondly, for its downfall. Egypt fell successively into the hands of the Persians, the Greeks, the Arabs and the Turks.

LESSON.

I. — **Subject matter of Ancient History.** — 1. Ancient History or the history of antiquity comprises historical facts which date from the most remote ages to the fall of the Western Empire in the fifth century of the Christian era. This history may be divided into three parts : The First Empires, Greece and Rome.

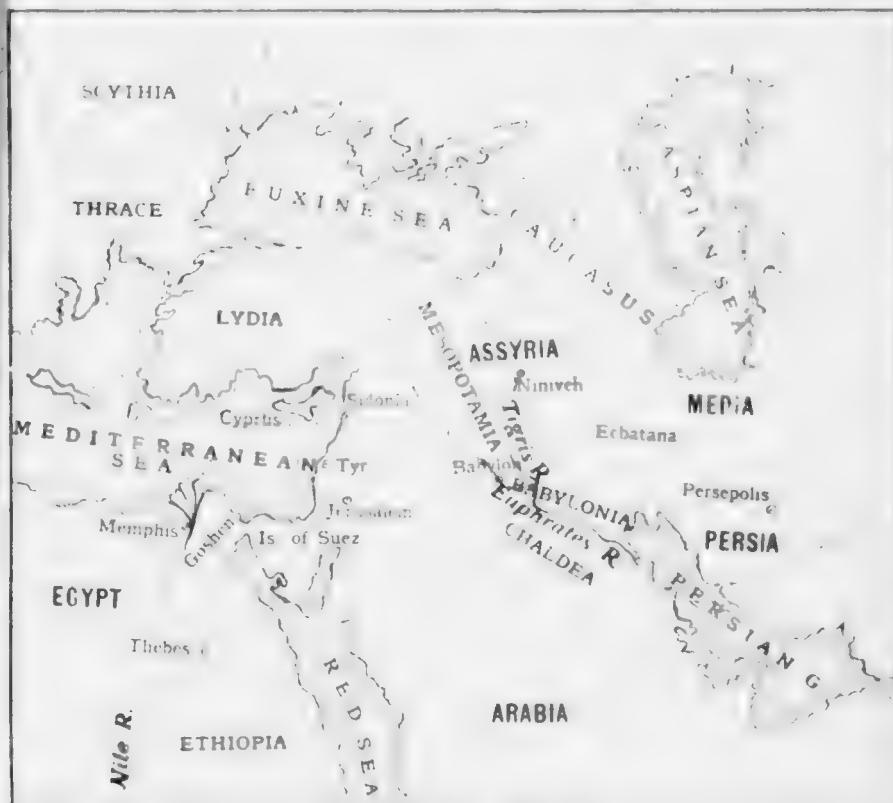
Ancient History does not date back to the origin of mankind, but begins after the deluge. After the dispersion of Noah's descendants men grouped here and there and formed nations. The monuments and writings which they left to posterity to commemorate their deeds show that they reached a certain degree of civilization. The ages previous to this period are call'd primitive or prehistoric ages and are known to us only through the Bible.

Races. — 2. Noah had three sons : Sem, Cham and Japhet. Of the descendants of Sem (Semitic), history treats chiefly of the Hebrews or Israelites, the Babylonians and the Assyrians; of the descendants of Cham (Chamites), it treats principally of the Egyptians and the Phoenicians; lastly, it treats of the Medes, the Persians, the Greeks and the Romans — descendants of Japhet.

The Hebrew people, whose glorious privilege it was to maintain the worship of the true God in the midst of universal idolatry, has a history apart — Sacred History. In Ancient History, mention will be made merely of those facts of the history of the Jews which are connected with that of other nations.

II. — **Egypt. — Its Situation.** — 3. Egypt is the first country mentioned in history. The boundaries of An-

cient Egypt were : the Mediterranean on the North, the Isthmus of Suez and the Red Sea on the East; Ethiopia, Nubia and Abyssinia on the South, the great Libyan Desert on the West. This country is the lower valley of one of the largest rivers in the world, the Nile, which



The Ancient Empires.

divides it into three parts : Upper Egypt or the Thebaid where the Nile does not overflow; Middle Egypt where the Nile overflows; and Lower Egypt, also called the Delta.

The two outer branches of the river's mouth form with the Mediterranean Sea a triangular figure resembling the fourth letter of the Greek alphabet, hence the name Delta.

History. — Till the nineteenth century nothing was known of the history of Egypt except what was gleaned from the incomplete accounts of the Bible and the legendary lore of a few Greek writers.

Bonaparte's expedition into Egypt (1798-1801) drew scholars and artists to the study of the country and the careful examination of the plans of the monuments. But these monuments were covered with mystical characters, hieroglyphics. In 1822 Champollion, a Frenchman, finally succeeded in fathoming the secret of the Egyptian writing and thus it became possible to know the true history, religion, customs and arts of the ancient Egyptians.

Division of the History of Egypt. — The history of Egypt is generally divided into three great periods during which thirty dynasties held sway. The first period, comprising the Old Empire till the eleventh dynasty, lasted about 1500 years; the second period, the Middle Empire, included the eleventh to the eighteenth dynasty, and lasted for more than 7000 years; lastly, the third period, comprising the New Empire, included the eighteenth to the twenty-seventh dynasty and lasted until the Persian conquest, that is, about 1200 years. The last dynasties, the twenty-eighth, twenty-ninth and thirtieth, are connected with this third period and succeeded one another during the sixty years wherein Egypt finally secured independence from foreign rule.

III. - The Old Empire. — 4. When the dispersion of man took place Cham, Noah's second son, settled in Western Asia and later in Africa.

Egypt is alternately called in Scripture "The Land of Cham or the Land of Mesraim" because it was peopled by the descendants of Cham's son, Menes or Mesraim. The Old Empire founded by Menes lasted from 4500 to 300 B. C. The Kings of Egypt took the title of Pharaoh, denoting sovereign power. The principal Pharaohs of the Old Empire took up their residence at Memphis in Lower Egypt on the banks of the Nile.

The Pyramids. — 5. The most eminent kings were those of the fourth dynasty, who erected the Pyramids to be used as royal burial places. These monuments of gigan-

known of
he incom-
of a few

v scholars
examina-
ents were
322 Cham-
the secret
know the
Egyptians.

history of
ls during
od, com-
y, lasted
Empire,
nd lasted
od, com-
h to the
asian con-
ties, the
nnected
r during
ndepend-

ersion of
settled in

Land of
peopled
Hesraim.
om 4500
of Pha-
Pharaohs
Memphis

ere those
ds to be
f gigan-

tic size and ponderous mass, which have withstood the wear and tear of time and the ravages of barbarians, were considered in antiquity among the wonders of the world.

The highest pyramid is that of Cheops which rises to a height of 450 feet above the ground. Herodotus tells us a hundred thousand men, working at intervals of three months, took thirty years to build this pyramid. A wall six feet high and three thousand miles long could be built of the stones of this structure.

IV. The Middle Empire. 6. About 3000 B. C., through events unknown to us, the supremacy passed over to Upper Egypt, that is, to the southern cities, and Thebes became the residence of the kings.



The Pyramids of Egypt.

Poets tell us that this city had a hundred gates, through each of which 10,000 men could pass out together. Its magnificence equalled its size. Travellers in modern times have discovered in its ruins, temples and palaces still almost entire, containing innumerable statues.

The twelfth dynasty is the most brilliant and the best known of the Middle Empire. The kings of this dynasty accomplished works which were beneficial to the whole of Egypt. Lochs and canals, dikes and reservoirs were constructed in order to effect a more regular distribution of the Nile waters over the land. King Morris built a vast and extraordinary collection of palaces called the Labyrinth. He also constructed an immense reservoir,

called Lake Morris, which received the surplus waters when the overflow of the Nile was too great, and, on the contrary, gave of its own abundance when the supply was insufficient.

Invasion of the Hyksos. 7. Towards the twenty-second century before the present era, Egypt, which was then divided into several independent states, was invaded by wandering tribes of shepherds, believed to have come from Arabia. These invaders burned the cities, destroyed the temples and reduced the ancient inhabitants to slavery. The Egyptian dynasty, founded at Thebes, was the only one to escape bondage. The Egyptians called the conquerors Hyksos or Shepherd Kings. The latter made Memphis their capital, and like the Egyptian monarchs assumed the title of Pharaoh. There were then two dynasties, one at Thebes which was subject to the other at Memphis.

During the rule of the Hyksos or Shepherd Kings, Jacob's son, Joseph, was brought into Egypt and later on became minister to one of these kings. Pharaoh's kindly welcome to Jacob and his family and his granting them full liberty to settle in the north of Egypt was due to the fact that Abraham's descendants were shepherds also. (About 1920 B. C.)

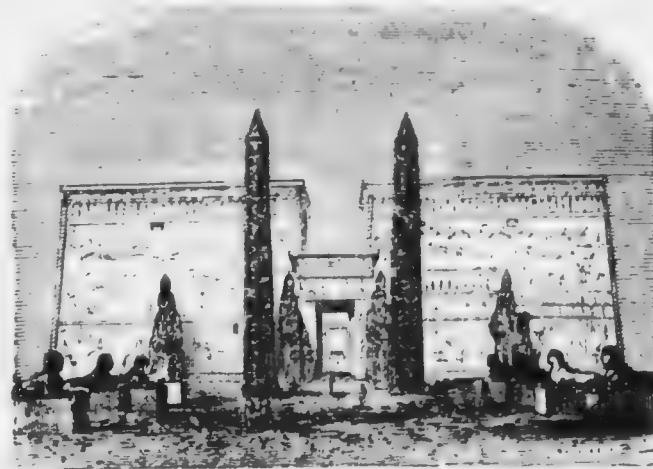
Soon the conquerors became civilized and adopted the language and customs of the Egyptians. These Shepherd Kings reigned about 500 years. Towards the year 1700 B. C., the Theban princes thought they were sufficiently strong to reconquer Lower Egypt. The struggle was long and desperate. Finally, the Hyksos were driven out (about 1680 B. C.).

V.—The New Empire.—Conquests.—8. After the expulsion of the Hyksos, the Theban kings began a series of struggles which extended their dominion into Asia as far as the Euphrates and the Tigris, into Ethiopia in Africa, and the Isle of Cyprus in the Mediterranean.

The Pharaohs, fearing that the Hyksos would again attempt the invasion of Egypt and find powerful allies in the descendants of Jacob, the Hebrew people who inhabited the Delta, wished

to put an end to the increase of this formidable population by cruel measures. The new king who knew not Joseph and who oppressed the Hebrews was then one of the Pharaohs of the New Empire.

Legend attributes all the conquests of Egypt to Rameses II styled the Great, known also as Sesostris (1407-1348 B. C.) Rameses II of the nineteenth dynasty was a great warrior and builder. It was during his reign that the principal monuments in the country were erected, - the great temples of Karnak and Luxor, and the numerous obelisks on which were engraved the names of Egyptian victories and conquered nations.



Temple of Luxor.

Decline of the Empire. — 9. The grandeur of Egypt was shortlived. Immediately after the death of Rameses the Great, its decline began. His son, Menephthah, whom modern historians agree in identifying with the Pharaoh of the Exodus, was buried with his whole army in the Red Sea. The seven centuries which followed the death of Rameses the Great or Sesostris were but a long period of decline for Egypt.

During this period the Jewish Empire between the Euphrates and the Red Sea was founded under David and Solomon.

In the midst of this decadence Egypt, nevertheless, was somewhat successful; Rameses III, of the twentieth dynasty, defeated the Syrians and Phoenicians on land and sea. Shishak took Jerusalem from Roboam, Solomon's son, and carried away all the treasures from the Temple and the palace. Such victories were, however, of rare occurrence.

Subjection. — 10. In the eighth century the Ethiopians took signal revenge for former defeats. They became masters of the country which had formerly ruled them, and held sway over Egypt for half a century. On the other hand, the Assyrians made frequent inroads into the country and Egypt became the disputed prey of two nations. The Assyrians finally triumphed, and in 670 Egypt was made a province of the Assyrian Empire.

New National Dynasty. — 11. How the Assyrians were driven out of Egypt is not known, but it is certain that before the end of the seventh century the country was freed from the Assyrian yoke. Then a new national dynasty, the twenty-sixth, sprang up and cast a ray of glory on the expiring Egyptian monarchy.

Necho II. — 12. Necho II, one of the kings of this dynasty, wished to make Egypt a commercial country. Vessels were built on the shores of the Mediterranean and Red Seas. Work was begun connecting the Mediterranean with the Red Sea, the Nile being the point of departure. Phoenician travellers were commissioned by Pharaoh to circumnavigate Africa for purposes of discovery. At the time of the fall of the Assyrian Empire, Necho determined to retake former Egyptian possessions in Syria bordering on the Euphrates. At Megiddo, he defeated Josiah, the king of Juda, who opposed his progress. Josiah was killed in the battle and the kingdom of Juda became tributary to Necho, who in his turn was defeated in 605 by Nabuchodonosor II, king of Assyria.

vertheless,
twentieth
on land
am. Solo-
from the
however.

thiopians
became
ed them.
On the
ads into
y of two
I in 670
pire.

uns were
tain that
try was
national
a ray of

of this
country.
rranean
e Medi-
point of
ned by
of dis-
Empire,
sessions
ddo, he
his pro-
kingdom
rn was
Assyria.

Amasis. 13. The last national king who ruled Egypt was Amasis, a usurper who, to justify his power, married a princess of the royal house. The writings of Herodotus show that Amasis was witty as well as clever.

His obscure birth, his irregular life until he assumed kingly power, estranged from him part of the nation. Amasis answered those who upbraided him for his low origin by a species of *apologue*: he ordered a golden basin, in which he and his guests had previously washed their feet at table, to be melted. From this metal he ordered a statue of a god to be cast and exposed for public worship. This god received the adoration of all. Amasis then said to the Egyptians: "Behold the symbol of my life, — this vile basin turned into the statue of a god is now the object of your worship. Although I formerly belonged to the lowest class, to-day I am at your head. I have then the right to look for respect and obedience from you."

The wise rule of Amasis soon won him all hearts. This clever king drew a great number of Greeks into Egypt. Never had the country been more prosperous.

Foreign rule. 14. Unhappily the wealth of the country could not replace bravery. In consequence, the nation became weak and defenceless. On the other hand, the Persian Empire, at this period, had grown strong in Asia. Within six months after the death of Amasis, the Persians, headed by Cambyses, invaded Egypt which, being powerless to resist, became a province of the Persian Empire (525).

The Egyptians tried several times to free themselves, and succeeded in obtaining their national independence for sixty years, (500-445) during which time followed the last three national dynasties, the twenty-eighth, the twenty-ninth, and the thirtieth. Having fallen again under the Persian yoke, Egypt was conquered in 342 by Alexander the Great, then by the Greeks, and finally in 30 B. C., by the Romans. The Arabs and Turks, in turn, took possession of it. For the last twenty-four centuries, Egypt, once so glorious, has been under foreign rule.

Religion. — Noah's descendants had brought with them to the banks of the Nile, their belief in one God; but soon in Egypt as elsewhere this belief became perverted. Egyptian priests, nevertheless, always maintained the dogma of the unity of God combined, however, with many errors.

The belief of the people was very crude. The Egyptians thought that the gods became incarnate in the bodies of sacred animals, the most famous being the ox, Apis, which was magnificently served in its own temple by its own priests. These people adored even vegetables, the onion and the garden wart. Everything was God except God Himself.

The Egyptians believed in a future life, a land of peace, in which bodies were to be reunited to souls, and there with them receive the same reward. From this belief sprang the general endeavor to retain their form. Such care was taken that even to day, some of these corpses or mummies are found perfectly preserved under the linen bands in which they were wrapped five or six thousand years ago.

Civilization. — No other country can boast of a civilization of such ancient standing as that of Egypt. This civilization is especially manifest in the architecture of its temples, pyramids and obelisks.

QUESTIONS. — 1. What historical facts form the subject matter of Ancient History? — 2. What races does Ancient history especially mention? — 3. Where is Egypt situated? — 4. How is this country naturally divided? — 5. Which was the most famous dynasty of the Old Empire and what monuments did it leave? — 6. About what period was the Middle Empire formed? What was the seat of the Middle Empire? Which is the best known dynasty? — 7. About what century did the invasion of the Shepherd Kings take place? What do you know of their rule? — 8. What Empire in Egypt was remarkable for its great conquests? Relate the downfall of Egypt. — 9. Did Egypt ever recover its independence? — 10. Relate the story of the reign of Necho II. — 11. Give a sketch of the life of king Amasis. — 12. What became of Egypt after the death of Amasis?

Synoptical table for review.**Egypt.**

SUBJECT MATTER OF ANCIENT HISTORY.

EGYPT	SITUATION	{ Nile Valley
	DIVISIONS	{ Upper Egypt Middle Egypt Lower Egypt
POLITICAL HISTORY	Origin	{
	Old Empire	Old Empire Middle Empire New Empire Decline
OLD EMPIRE	Origin	{
	Duration	Duration Dynasties Titles Residence Monuments
MIDDLE EMPIRE	Residence	{
	Most important dynasty: Beneficial Works	Most important dynasty: Beneficial Works Vast constructions : Labyrinth Lake Moeris
INVASION	Work of destruction	{
	Residence	Residence Struggle with Theban
THE NEW EMPIRE	dynasty	{
	Expulsion	Expulsion In Africa In Asia In the Mediterranean
	CONQUESTS	{
	MONUMENTS	Temples Obelisks

Synoptical table for review.—Continued.

Egypt.

DECLINE	<table border="0"> <tr> <td>Losses.....</td><td>Pharaoh and his army</td></tr> <tr> <td>Gains.....</td><td>Syrians and Phoenicians defeated</td></tr> <tr> <td></td><td>Capture of Jerusalem</td></tr> </table>	Losses.....	Pharaoh and his army	Gains.....	Syrians and Phoenicians defeated		Capture of Jerusalem				
Losses.....	Pharaoh and his army										
Gains.....	Syrians and Phoenicians defeated										
	Capture of Jerusalem										
SUBJECTION	<table border="0"> <tr> <td>To the Ethiopians</td><td></td></tr> <tr> <td>To the Assyrians</td><td></td></tr> </table>	To the Ethiopians		To the Assyrians							
To the Ethiopians											
To the Assyrians											
NEW NATIONAL DYNASTY	<table border="0"> <tr> <td>Assyrians expelled</td><td></td></tr> <tr> <td>Character and achievements of Necho II and</td><td></td></tr> <tr> <td>Amasis</td><td></td></tr> </table>	Assyrians expelled		Character and achievements of Necho II and		Amasis					
Assyrians expelled											
Character and achievements of Necho II and											
Amasis											
FOREIGN RULE	<table border="0"> <tr> <td>Persians</td><td></td></tr> <tr> <td>Greeks</td><td></td></tr> <tr> <td>Romans</td><td></td></tr> <tr> <td>Arabs</td><td></td></tr> <tr> <td>Turks</td><td></td></tr> </table>	Persians		Greeks		Romans		Arabs		Turks	
Persians											
Greeks											
Romans											
Arabs											
Turks											

CHAPTER II.

BABYLONIANS AND ASSYRIANS.

OUTLINE : Situation of Babylonia and Assyria — First Babylonian Empire — Assyrian Empire — New Babylonian Empire.

SUMMARY OF EVENTS.

- I. — The lower part of the plain which extends from the Tigris to the Euphrates was formerly called Babylonia. Assyria was situated on both banks of the Upper Tigris.
- II. — Nimrod built Babylon and held it under his power, together with the neighboring lands and peoples. Several other cities were built later on and remained independent until the twenty-third century. They were then subjugated by Khammurabi, king of Babylon, the founder of the first Babylonian Empire. This Empire became a tributary of Assyria in the thirteenth century.
- III. — Ashur founded Nineveh, the first city of Assyria. This country, at first subject to Babylon, became its master in the thirteenth century. The Assyrian kings extended their empire considerably.
The history of the Assyrian Empire is divided into two parts : the first ends with the capture of Nineveh in 625.
- IV. — The second Babylonian Empire began after the destruction of Nineveh. It lasted till 538, when Babylon was taken by the Persians. This Empire attained the height of its prosperity under Nabuchodonosor II. who took Jerusalem and made Babylon a magnificent city.

LESSON.

I. — Babylonia and Assyria. — Situation. — 15. The lower part of the plain extending from the Tigris to the Euphrates was formerly called Babylonia or Chaldea; the upper part of this plain was called Mesopotamia (land between two rivers.)

The country situated on the banks of the Upper Tigris was called Assyria. It extended, on the north, as far as the mountains of Armenia; and on the east, as far as Media.

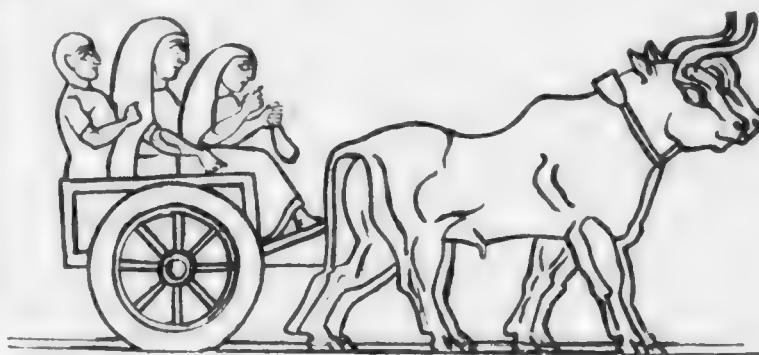
History. — The knowledge gleaned through Greek legends concerning the Chaldeans and Assyrians is but a tissue of fables. It seemed impossible to verify their accounts; it was thought that their historical monuments had forever disappeared, when in 1842, Botta, the French consul at Mosul, began the excavation of Koyunjik, ancient Nineveh. Magnificent ruins of an Assyrian king's palace were found with a prodigious quantity of precious objects and inscriptions traced in cuneiform, that is, in corner-shaped or nail-shaped characters. True notions were thus given of Chaldean and Assyrian history, with some ideas of the beliefs and customs of these peoples.

II. — First Babylonian or Chaldean Empire. — 16. When men were forced to separate in consequence of the confusion of tongues, they did not all leave the plain of Senaar, or Chaldea, where Noah's descendants had lived since the deluge. Nimrod, the grandson of Cham, of whom the Bible says: «He was a valiant hunter before Jehovah, and the first man of power upon the earth,» built the City of Babylon at the foot of the tower of Babel and forced neighboring lands and peoples to accept his domination.

Later on several other towns were built in Chaldea; for a long time, these were independent and each was governed by a king or chief. Among these towns was Ur, the birthplace of Abraham. About the twenty-third century, Hammurabi, a king of Babylon, made himself

— 15. The Tigris to the Chaldea; sopotamia per Tigris as far as as far as

— 15. The master of all the other kingdoms and forced them to pay tribute to him, thus founding the first Babylonian or Chaldean Empire. His successors maintained this supremacy until the sixteenth century. Chaldea was then invaded by the Cushites, an Eastern tribe of warriors and plunderers, and remained under their yoke until the thirteenth century when it was conquered by the Assyrians.



Captive woman and children.

— 16. An inscription kept in the museum of the Louvre, dates back to the king Khammurabi who styles himself the king of Bab-ili. This inscription tells of a canal built by the king himself, the "Nahar-Khammurabi," a blessing to the men of Bab-ili. "I have changed the desert plains into well-watered fields; I have given them fertility and abundance; I have made of them a dwelling-place of happiness."

Assyria. — Legends. — Greek legends dwelt at length on the conquests of Ninus, king of Nineveh, who had formed a vast empire comprising all the regions extending from the Indus to the Mediterranean. They related the wonders of the reign of his widow, Semiramis, who had founded Babylon on a still grander scale than Nineveh. She had a bridge constructed over the Euphrates, at the extremities of which were built two immense palaces, joined by a covered passage, under the river. Legends also told of the shameful, slothful lives of the successors of Semiramis. They related at length the effeminate life of Sardanapalus. He dressed in a woman's gown, covered his face with paint and handled the distaff and spindle. When he saw that Nineveh was about to fall into the hands of the Medes, he had himself burned with his treasures.

Assyrian Empire. — 17. About the same time that Nimrod founded Babylon, Ashur, son of Sem, founded Nineveh on the Tigris. The name Assyria was derived from that of Ashur. For a long time Assyria was subject to Chaldea; finally, it not only freed itself from this subjection but, after having conquered the whole of Mesopotamia, subdued Chaldea about the beginning of the thirteenth century. Thus was the Assyrian Empire formed. Its history is divided into two parts: the first ends with the taking of Nineveh, in 788; the second, with the destruction of Nineveh, in 625.

First Part. Principal Kings. — 18. During the five centuries which followed the union of Babylon and Nineveh, the Assyrian kings waged cruel wars. They took pleasure in pillage and destruction and exterminated whole populations.



Winged Bull

(discovered in the ruins of Nineveh).

Tiglath-Pileser I extended his empire as far as the Black Sea and the Lebanon Mountains. An inscription attributed to him boasts of his «having swept the surface of the earth». Shalmaneser II twice took and pillaged the city of Damascus, in Syria and obliged the kings of Phoenicia and of Philistia to pay tribute to him. Finally

the conquered nations all rose in rebellion and the Chaldeans and Medes took possession of Nineveh in 788.

Part Second. — Phul. — 19. Nineveh was not destroyed but the Assyrian Empire was divided. The Chaldean Phul, whom several scholars consider as identical with Tiglath-Pileser II, united Babylon and Nineveh under his rule. It was the same Phul of the Bible who imposed a tribute on Manahem, king of Israel.

time that founded s derived was sub- from this whole of inning of an Empire : the first ond, with

g the five ylon and rs. They erminated

er I ex- re as far ea and the tains. An tributed to his chav- surface of almaneser and pil- of Damas- and obliged Phoenicia ia to pay . Finally the Chal- in 788.

destroyed, Chaldean, tical with yeh under o imposed

The impious Achaz, king of Juda, begged the protection of Phul, or Tiglath-Pileser II, against the kings of Syria and Israel and in return gave up the treasures of the Temple and the palace. Tiglath-Pileser took advantage of this dissension to invade Syria and conquer Damascus. He then took from Phacee, king of Israel, half of his kingdom and carried off the inhabitants to Assyria.

The Sargonids. — **Sargon.** — 20. A particularly interesting period of the second part of the Assyrian Empire was the dy-

nasty of the Sargonids. The first king of the dynasty was a general of the highest order. Sargon, also called Salmanasar IV. During a whole century, this dynasty displayed a series of brilliant reigns. The Sargonids vigorously pursued the work of extending the empire.

Osee, king of Israel, succeeded Phacee and refused to pay tribute to the Assyrians. Fearing a new invasion, he asked help from the king of Egypt. Annoyed at this alliance of Israel with Egypt, Sargon or Salmanasar IV, marched against Samaria, took possession of it after a siege of three years, and brought into captivity the remaining Jews of the kingdom of Israel.

Sennacherib. — **Esarhaddon.** — 21. Sennacherib, son and successor of Salmanasar IV, wanted to conquer the



Sargon and his Minister.

(bas relief discovered in the ruins of Nineveh).

kingdom of Juda. At first he seemed to succeed, took several strongholds of Judea, and threatened Jerusalem. Ezechias raised his voice to heaven. «Fear not,» said the prophet Isaias to the king. «Thus saith the Lord concerning the King of the Assyrians : He shall not come into this City (Jerusalem) nor shoot an arrow into it, nor come before it with shield, nor cast a trench about it.» That very night, 185,000 men of the Assyrian army died of the plague, and the king of Nineveh left Judea and shamefully returned to his dominions.

Esarhaddon, third king of the dynasty of the Sargonids, determined to take revenge on the king of Juda, for the defeat of his father, Sennacherib. By his crimes, Manasseh or Manasses, son of Ezechias, had drawn down upon himself the anger of God. He was unable to resist Esarhaddon, who brought him captive to Babylon, bound with a double brass chain. Esarhaddon was the first Assyrian prince who succeeded in entering Egypt victoriously (690), and in adding to his titles that of King of Egypt and Ethiopia.

Ashurbanipal. — Nabuchodonosor I. — 22. Ashurbanipal was the last king who pursued the work of extending Assyria (667-625). He surpassed all his predecessors in activity, energy, and cruelty. He succeeded in keeping all the Assyrian conquests, despite the violent rebellions in Egypt and Chaldea, and gave the Empire its greatest extent.

His son and successor, Nabuchodonosor I, is the Assyrian king of whom the Bible says that he wished «to bring the whole world under his sway.» He sent forth his general, Holophernes, at the head of a formidable army. The kings and nations of Syria and Asia Minor hastened to submit. The king of Juda, trusting in the help of God, firmly awaited the enemy. Holophernes laid siege to Bethulia, but met with death at the hand of the valiant Judith. A fearful panic then seized the dismayed Assyrians. Leaving their tents and belongings,

they fled in all directions, pursued by the Hebrews who cut them to pieces.

Fall of Nineveh. — 23. The news of this shameful defeat reassured all the enemies of the kings of Nineveh. Exhausted by its long wars, the Assyrian Empire was attacked by Cyaxares, king of Media. Instead of marching against the enemy, as he had been commanded, Nabopolassar, governor of Babylon, had himself proclaimed king and joined forces with the Medes.

Nineveh was taken and burnt, and Assyria ceased to be a nation (606 B. C.).

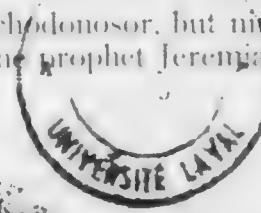
Excavations bring to light even to-day signs of the fearful conflagration which caused the fall of the buildings of Nineveh.

IV. — New Babylonian Empire. — 24. Two new empires grew out of the division of the Assyrian Empire : that of the Medes, who took Assyria, properly so-called ; and Babylon, which included Chaldea, Mesopotamia, Syria and Palestine. Nabopolassar assumed the kingship of Babylon. This new Babylonian or Chaldean Empire lasted scarcely half a century.

Nabuchodonosor II. — 25. All the greatness of Babylon may be summed up in one reign, that of Nabuchodonosor II, son of Nabopolassar. Endowed with a warlike nature and indomitable energy, this king was equal to the most famous Assyrians conquerors. He seized Tyre which had withstood assaults for thirteen years. He took Jerusalem twice, the first time (606) carrying off the treasures of the Temple and of the king's palace, and leading into captivity King Joachim, the prophet Ezechiel, and all the chiefs, warriors, mechanics and blacksmiths. He then placed Sedecias, Joachim's uncle, on the throne.

The "Seventy Years' Captivity" is reckoned from this period.

Sedecias swore allegiance to Nabuchodonosor, but nine years later, despite the warnings of the prophet Jeremias,



he united with Egypt against Assyria. Nabuchodonosor then hastened to Jerusalem which he took after a siege of two years. Sedecias was punished by having his eyes torn out, and was then led into captivity to Babylon together with all the inhabitants except the poor, the vine dressers and the husbandmen who were allowed to remain in Judea. The Temple was destroyed, the walls of Jerusalem were thrown down and the houses burned. Nabuchodonosor then invaded Egypt and gained great victories over Necho but did not succeed in wholly crushing his power.

During times of peace Nabuchodonosor did a great deal for the welfare of the nation, and to him Babylon is indebted for this period of prosperity. The last years of his life were devoted to the building of walls around the city, the reconstruction of temples and the repairing of the irrigation system.

Babylon could boast of well laid out streets, high dwellings, temples, sumptuous palaces, hanging gardens, and extensive terraces which rose one above the other on pillars and arches. Trees were planted on each terrace and from a distance, these groves, thus arranged in the form of an amphitheatre, might have been taken for forests on the mountain-side.

Nabuchodonosor's victories and works over-elated him. To show him the futility of his power, God deprived him of his reason. This insanity lasted seven years, during which time the Queen Nitocris wisely ruled the empire.

End of the Babylonian Empire. — 26. The glory of the Babylonian Empire waned with Nabuchodonosor. In 538 B. C., Cyrus, king of the Medes and Persians, invaded Chaldea which was poorly defended by Balthassar.

The Persians, having turned the waters of the Euphrates from their course, entered Babylon during a night of revelry and took the city by storm. A hundred and fifty years before this event, the prophet Isaias had foretold the fall of Babylon with such a precision of details that it might be taken for history rather than for prophecy : Chap. XI, VII, I-II, Chap. XLV, 2, Chap. XXI.

(See English Bible). Thus saith the Lord : "Go up, O Elam, besiege O Mede: Prepare the table; behold in the watch-tower them that eat and drink; arise ye princes, take up the shield. Thus saith the Lord to my anointed Cyrus, whose right hand I have taken hold of: I will break to pieces the gates of brass, and will burst the bars of iron. Come down, sit in the dust, O daughter

Babylon, sit on the ground, there is no throne for the daughter of the Chaldeans. Evil shall come upon thee, and thou shalt not know the rising thereof; there is none that can save thee. Is. XLVII." Does not such a perfect agreement between history and prophecy show forth strikingly the Divine inspiration of Holy Scripture ?

Religion of the Babylonians and Assyrians. — The Babylonians and Assyrians adored a multitude of divinities. The chief god of the former was Bel or Baal, that of the latter was Assur. The Chaldean priests studied astronomy and made some important discoveries; to them may be attributed the division of the day into twenty-four hours and that of the solar year into three hundred sixty-five and one fourth days, or twelve months.

Customs and Civilization. — The Chaldeans, a peaceful nation, devoted themselves to agriculture, industry and commerce. The Assyrians were the most harsh, warlike and avaricious nation that ever ruled in Asia. Their inscriptions show that massacre and plunder was their sole end in war.

QUESTIONS. — 15. Where were Babylonia and Assyria situated ? — 16. Give a brief account of the first Babylonian or Chaldean Empire. — 17. How was the Assyrian Empire formed ? What are the two great divisions of the history of this Empire ?

18. What do you know of the principal kings who ruled the Assyrian Empire until the taking of Nineveh by the Medes ? —

19. Relate the history of the reign of Phul. — 20. What dynasty of the second part of the Assyrian Empire is particularly interesting ? Relate the exploits of Sargon. — 21. What relation existed between Sennacherib and Esarhaddon and the kings of Palestine ?

22. What are the principal events of the reign of Ashurbanipal and that of Nabuchodonosor I. — 23. Relate the fall of Nineveh. — 24. What new empires grew out of the division of the Assyrian Empire ? — 25. Relate the history of the reign of Nabuchodonosor II. — 26. How did the second Babylonian Empire end ?

odonosor
r a siege
his eyes
Babylon
poor, the
lowed to
the walls
s burned.
ed great
ly crush-

a great
Babylon
ast years
s around
repairing

dwellings,
nsive ter-
nes. Trees
se groves,
have been

ated him.
deprived
n years,
uled the

y of the
In 538
invaded
ar.

ates from
and took
his event,
h such a
ther than
ap. XXI.

Synoptical table for review.**The Babylonians and the Assyrians.**

BABYLONIANS AND ASSYRIANS	SITUATION
	ORIGIN
FIRST BABYLONIAN EMPIRE	ORIGIN
	GOVERNMENT
SECOND PERIOD	INVASIONS
	First Period
THE ASSYRIAN EMPIRE	KINGS
	SECOND PERIOD
THE ASSYRIAN EMPIRE	KINGS
	Phul — Babylon and Nineveh united
THE ASSYRIAN EMPIRE	Sargon
	Capture of Samaria and Jewish Captivity
THE ASSYRIAN EMPIRE	Invasion of Judea and Defeat
	Capture of Manasses, king of Judea
THE ASSYRIAN EMPIRE	Victory over Egyptians
	Extension of Assyrian Empire
THE ASSYRIAN EMPIRE	Conquest of Syria and Asia Minor
	Defeat of Holofernes
THE ASSYRIAN EMPIRE	Assyria conquered by Medes
	Fall of Nineveh

Synoptical table for review.—Continued.

EMPIRE OF THE MEDES. — EMPIRE OF BABYLON.

KING NABOPOLASSAR

THE NEW BABY- LONIAN EMPIRE	NABUCHODONOSOR II	Character	Tyre Jerusalem twice Babylonian Captivity Egypt	Period of Prosperity			
END OF THE BABY- LONIAN EMPIRE	INVASION BY CYRUS						
RELIGION	THE BABYLONIANS ADORED BAAL, THE ASSYRIANS ADORED ASSUR						
CIVILIZ- ATION AND CUSTOMS	BABYLONIANS ASSYRIANS						
	Devoted to : Agriculture Industry Commerce Harsh Warlike Avaricious						

CHAPTER III.

THE MEDES AND PERSIANS.

OUTLINE : *Situation of Media and Persia — The Median Empire — The Persian Empire : Cyrus, Darius — Phœnicia.*

SUMMARY OF EVENTS.

I. — Media and Persia were situated east of Chaldea and Assyria. Media extended on the north as far as Armenia and bordered on the Caspian Sea. Persia extended to the Persian Gulf on the south.

II. — The Median Empire was founded by Cyaxares. After having taken and destroyed Nineveh, he took possession of Assyria. The Median Empire lasted over two centuries.

III. — Cyrus subdued the Medes and founded the Persian Empire which he soon extended over almost the whole of Upper Asia. He seized Babylon and allowed the captive Jews to return to their country.

IV. — Phœnicia, a small country north-west of Palestine, formed a maritime and commercial nation whose principal cities were Tyre and Sidon.

LESSON.

I. — **Media and Persia.** — **Situation.** — 26. The Medes and Persians whom Cyrus had brought to Babylon, were two kindred nations living east of Assyria and Chaldea.

The rich plains of Media extended north as far as Armenia and bordered on the Caspian Sea; the capital was Ecbatana.

Persia was more mountainous and colder, and extended south to the Persian Gulf; for a long time its capital was Persopolis.

The Medes —
Chaldea as far as Persia
Yaxares, he took e lasted
Persian he whole wed the
Palestine, those prin-
Medes n. were Chaldea.

II. The Median Empire. — 27. Of the primitive history of the Medes and Persians we have very little exact information; we know only that in the beginning these two nations were subject to the Assyrians. The Medes contributed to the fall of Nineveh in 788, and thus won their independence. Media then ruled Persia.

About 606, the king Cyaxares, who had organized the Median army, allied himself with the governor of Babylon, Nabopolassar, against Nineveh. After the destruction of this city, the two allies divided the provinces of the Assyrian Empire. Assyria proper fell to the share of Cyaxares and thus the Median Empire was founded.

His son and successor was Astyages, who ruled thirty-four years. During this long and peaceful reign the Medes lost their warlike spirit, consequently they were unable to repulse the Persians under Cyrus, who took Ecbatana and routed Astyages (560).

III. — The Persian Empire. — Cyrus. — 28. Cyrus, the great Persian conqueror, put an end to the Median Empire by forcing the inhabitants to acknowledge him as their king. He then took possession of Mesopotamia and other countries south of the Caucasus. Asia grew alarmed at the young conqueror's progress and a league was formed to stop his advance. The kings of Babylon and Lydia headed this league. War was carried on for almost ten years. At first the allies were victorious, but their Cœsus, king of Lydia, was defeated and his kingdom fell into the hands of Cyrus, who made of Cœsus friend and counsellor.

The Babylonians believed their city to be impregnable, but Cyrus succeeded in changing the course of the Euphrates and entered the city through the bed of the river (538). By the fall of Babylon Cyrus became master of the whole of Chaldea.

In 536, Cyrus allowed the Jews, who had been carried away by Nabuchodonosor, to return to their country and rebuild their temple and cities. This act put an end to the Seventy Years' Captivity.

About two centuries before this, Isaia had prophesied this return of the Jews to their country : Thus saith the Lord to Cyrus : "Thou art my shepherd, and thou shalt perform all my pleasure"; to Jerusalem: "Thou shalt be built; and He, the Lord, saith to the Temple : Thy foundations shall be laid." — Jeremias XXX-3.

For behold the days come, and I will bring again the captivity of my people Israel and Juda; I will cause them to return to the land which I gave to their fathers and they shall possess it.

Cyrus lived seven years after the taking of Babylon. Nothing certain is known of the end of his reign nor of his death, nevertheless Herodotus says : "Cyrus subdued the whole of Upper Asia." It is also known that this conqueror divided his states into one hundred and twenty satrapies and constructed roads and stage-posts.

Cambyses. — 29. Cyrus was succeeded by his son Cambyses. After having conquered Egypt in a single battle (525), he resolved to bring the whole of Northern Africa under subjection, but his plan was not successful. He then ill-treated those whom he had conquered and caused a great many persons to be put to death.



Persian Soldier.

in Asia, his fury provoked a revolt of the Medes who were headed by their Magi. These Magi or priests formed a powerful caste. One of them, Smerdis, falsely pretended to be the son of Cyrus and brother of Cambyses, and had himself proclaimed king. Death prevented Cambyses from punishing the impostor.



Darius and the rebel chiefs.

Darius. 30. Darius, a Persian of royal descent, succeeded in dethroning the usurper and was proclaimed king (521).

It is believed that Darius was the prince called Assuerus in the Scripture.

During the first year of his reign, Darius had much to contend with in order to establish his authority. While pacifying the empire he strove to organize it.

Darius was not only a peace-maker and organizer, he was also a conqueror, and extended his empire as far as India. He then resolved to conquer the Scythians. This was an unsuccessful enterprise. His enemies drew him into a vast wilderness (the southern part of what is now a to-day) where he almost perished. On his return he conquered Thracia between the Danube and the Aegean Sea.

Cyrus had conquered the Ionians. Later the Greeks helped the Ionians in their revolt against Darius. In revenge the Persian king resolved to subjugate Greece and undertook the Median Wars (504). From that time, the history of the Persians is mingled with that of the Greeks. The Persian Empire was overthrown by Alexander the Great in 330.

Religion. — At an early date the Medes and Persians had forgotten the true God and His worship. Zoroaster endeavored to rectify this fatal error. He proclaimed the unity of God whom he called Ormuzd. Zoroaster's philosophy recommended the practice of prayer, labor and virtue. The purpose of life on earth was to sanctify the soul in order to prepare it for judgment after death.

By degrees, the Persians forgot Zoroaster's pure doctrine. Nevertheless during long centuries, they preserved their laborious and sober habits which were a contrast to the frightful degradation of their neighbors.

Customs. — Civilization. — According to Herodotus, education among the Medes and Persians consisted in learning to ride, to shoot an arrow, and to tell the truth. The real worth of the Persian Empire consisted neither in art nor in wealth but in securing for Asia during the space of two centuries, a milder, steadier and more permanent form of government than it had ever known.

Phoenicia. — Situation. — 31. Phoenicia was but a very small country northwest of Palestine and confined between the mountains of Lebanon and the shores of the Mediterranean.

Phoenicia was originally peopled by the descendants of Cham and was called the Land of Canaan after one of the sons of Cham. Later the descendants of Sem came to join them, and from these two nations the Phenician race was formed.

Navigation and commerce. — 31. The history of the Phenicians is not well known. For twenty centuries, despite its small extent, Phoenicia was prosperous and influential, being considered one of the greatest maritime

the Greeks
is. In re-
Greece and
at time, the
the Greeks
ander the

is had for
eavored to
God whom
hended the
of life on
for judg

trine. Nev-
er laborious
al degrada-

education
to ride, t
irth of the
lth but in
a milder,
han it had

ut a very
fined be-
es of the

of Cham
e sons of
hem, and
I

y of the
centuries.
ous and
naritime

the commercial nations of antiquity. The Phoenician
had passed through the Strait of Gibraltar and had
the Atlantic as far as the mouth of the Senegal.

the colonies which the Phoenicians established everywhere were trading posts, where products of Phoenician industry were exchanged. Some of these were at Cyprus, at Rhodes, in the islands of the Archipelago, in Syria, on the shores of the Euxine, in Crete, in Sicily and on the coasts of Africa. In short, the Phoenicians with the Greeks were the greatest colonizers of antiquity.

Cities. — 33. Phoenicia comprised several cities; the principal ones were Tyre and Sidon. Tyre, first taken by Nabuchodonosor, was destroyed in 332 by Alexander the Great. The ancient commercial houses of this city were then removed to Carthage, which developed to such an extent as to become a rival of Rome.

Industry. — The Phoenicians were not warriors but rather sailors, merchants and tradesmen. Several industrial discoveries are attributed to them: the manufacture of glass, the weaving and dyeing of cloth, the melting of metals. Moreover we are indebted to them for the alphabet.

Customs. — The excessive wealth of the Phoenicians resulting from this commerce and industry corrupted their morals. Of all their religions theirs was the most immoral and bloody. Their chief god was Baal or Moloch, to whom children were sacrificed. These victims were burned in the arms of the statue. The worship of their goddess, Astarte, was abominable. The Hebrews after their settlement in Palestine were continually in contact with the Phoenicians. The Bible says that in the time of David and Solomon, the two nations were allies. Hiram, king of Tyre, supplied Solomon with cedars from Lebanon for the construction of the Temple. Tyrian workmen wrought the various works, pillars, capitals, basins, etc., destined for the Temple. There was a time when Phoenician influence prevailed in the kingdoms of Judah and Israel; several times did Jehovah upbraid His people for the same worship which these pagans paid to Baal and Ashtoreth. Isaias and Ezechiel foretold the ruin of Tyre.

QUESTIONS. — 26. Where were Media and Persia situated? Enumerate the principal events connected with the Median

Empire? — 28. Relate how Cyrus founded and extended his empire. — 29. Who succeeded Cyrus and what do you know of this prince? — 30. How did Darius come to the throne? — 31. Name the principal events of his reign. — 32. Where was Phœnicia situated? — 33. What were the principal cities of Phœnicia? — 34. What is known of Phœnicia?

Synoptical table for review.

The Medes and Persians.

MEDIA AND PERSIA	SITUATION	Capitals
	ORIGIN	
THE MEDIAN EMPIRE	ORIGIN	Cyaxares Nabopolassar
	Conquest under	
	Losses under Astyages	
THE PERSIAN EMPIRE	Conquests under Cyrus	Media Mesopotamia Lydia Babylon
		Return of Jews from Babylonian Captivity
	Cambyses	Conquest of Egypt Revolt of Magi
	Darius	As peace-maker As organizer As conqueror As warrior — Media Wars

RELIGION, CIVILIZATION, CUSTOMS

PHœNICIA	SITUATION	Maritime Commercial
	ORIGIN	
	IMPORTANCE	
	COLONIZATION	
	INDUSTRY	
	RELIGION	
	CUSTOMS	
INFLUENCE IN PALESTINE		

d his em-
w of this
31. Name
Phoenicia
nicia ?

PART SECOND.

GREECE.

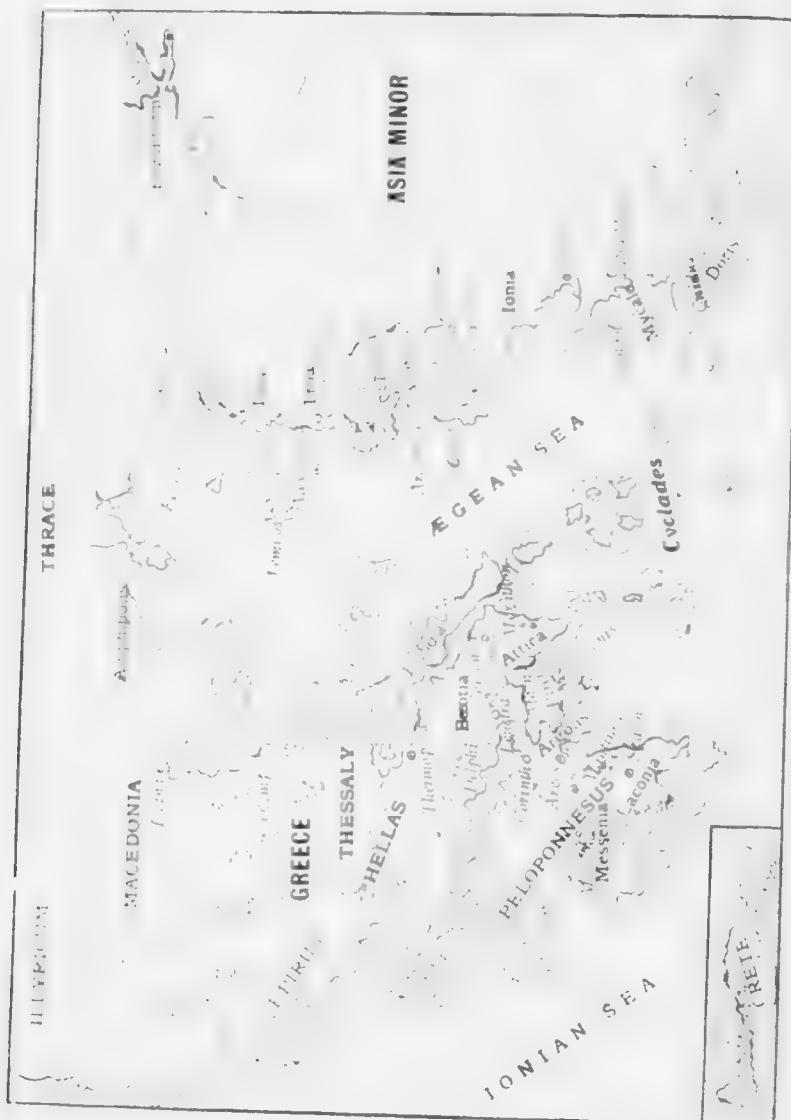
CHAPTER FIRST.

PRIMITIVE GREECE.

TOPICS : *Geography of Greece — Primitive Greece — first Inhabitants — Heroic Ages — Theban War — Trojan War.*

SUMMARY OF EVENTS.

- I. — Greece is a peninsula in the Mediterranean lying between the Archipelago and the Ionian sea.
- II. — Ancient Greece was larger than modern Greece ; it was divided into a great many small states separated by mountains.
- III. — The first inhabitants of Greece were the Pelasgi, then came the Hellenes and a small number of Egyptians and Phoenicians.
- IV. — The first ages of Greek history are called "Heroic Ages" because they are full of legendary tales of the marvellous exploits of their heroes or demi-gods.
- V. — Seven kings united to restore to the throne of Thebes the king Polynices, who had been dethroned by his brother. Six of these chiefs, besides the two pretenders to the throne, perished in this war. Later the sons of these chiefs undertook another war against Thebes. After a struggle of ten years the son of Polynices ascended the throne.
- VI. — Helen, wife of the Spartan king, was carried off by the king of Troas. In revenge, one hundred thousand Greeks under Agamemnon laid siege to Troy which fell after a heroic struggle of ten years.



LESSON

I. — Physical Geography. — Situation. — 1. Greece is one of the three peninsulas which form the southern part of Europe. It is bounded on the east by the Archi-

Argo or Aegean Sea, and on the west by the Ionian Sea.

Division. — 2. Greece is naturally divided into three parts by the sea; 1st — Hellas or Greece proper, which is continental; 2nd, Morea, formerly called Peloponnesus, forming peninsular Greece and joined to Hellas by the Isthmus of Corinth; 3rd, Insular Greece, comprising countless islands surrounding Greece.

II. — Ancient Greece. — 3. Ancient Greece, known as Hellas until the time of its historic connection with Rome, was larger than Modern Greece since it included Macedonia and other countries which to-day form part of Turkey. It is impossible to determine its boundaries, for the ancients have left nothing precise on this subject. Moreover, these boundaries have changed very often, since the name of Greece, which originally designated only a district of Epirus, later included Thessaly, Peloponnesus, Illyria, Macedonia, etc.

This very small country was divided into about thirty states, the area of the largest not equalling that of some of the counties in the province of Quebec. These divisions were natural not arbitrary, for the mountains with which the interior of Greece is covered, enclosed small valleys. Thus separated one from the other by steep walls and having no other easy outlets than those leading to the sea, each of these valleys formed a state or kingdom.

The Greeks, an intelligent, energetic people profited by the advantages which their country offered. Their chief occupations were those of shepherds, husbandmen and miners. Nature had apparently destined them to be sailors also, since the sea was the only natural link between the different territories of Greece, and the chief means of communication with foreign lands. This sea which surrounded them on all sides, was so calm that it induced them to increase their commerce and dominions.

III. — First inhabitants. — 4. According to tradition and historical probabilities, the Pelasgi, a people who had come from the North about the 17th century B. C., were the first inhabitants of Greece.

Towards the 15th century, the Hellenes came and dispossessed the Pelasgi, expelled them and finally exterminated them. Eventually the Hellenes whom the Romans later called Greeks, were divided into four tribes differing greatly in customs, language and political institutions: the Aeolians and Achaeans, two tribes who were foremost in the heroic ages; the Dorians and Ionians, at first obscure, but later famous under the names of Spartans and Athenians and finally masters of Greece.

Oriental settlers came at a later date from Egypt, Phoenicia and Phrygia and brought with them oriental art.

IV. — Heroic Ages. — 5. The first period of Greek history (1500-1100) is but a tissue of fables. It is the period of man's struggle against the wild animals with which the country was infested, and that of the strife between the Hellenes and the Pelasgi. Greek imagination has filled it with the marvellous exploits of heroes or demi-gods, whence comes the name "Heroic Ages". The most famous events of this period are the Theban and the Trojan Wars.

V. — Theban War. — 6. Oedipus, king of Thebes, cursed by the gods for crimes which he had involuntarily committed, had punished himself by pulling out his eyes and afterwards leaving the country. Blind and exiled, he wandered for a long time with his daughter, Antigone, and came back to die at Colonus. In the meantime, his sons, Eteocles and Polynices, were contending for the throne of Thebes. Driven out by his brother, Polynices took refuge with the king of Argos, who brought him back to the walls of Thebes with a powerful army commanded by five other illustrious chiefs. This war of the "Seven Chiefs" probably took place towards the middle of the thirteenth century. All the leaders perished, except the king of Argos.

des and Polynices being dead, the Theban crown passed to Creon, their uncle. Later on, the sons of the Seven Chiefs marched against Thebes, and, after fighting ten years, took possession of it, and gave the crown to the son of Polynices. This war of the Epigoni (descendants) brought about the immigration of a great number of Thebans into Thessaly.

VI.—Trojan War. — 7. There were old grudges existing between the inhabitants of Asia Minor and those of Greece over the abduction of Helen, wife of Menelaus, king of Sparta, by the young Paris, son of Priam, king of Troy. This was the war-signal. A hundred thousand Greeks were to march against Troy, the capital of Troas. Led by Agamemnon, commander-in-chief, and by other kings, Menelaus, Ulysses, Nestor, Ajax, the young and valiant Achilles and his friend, Patroclus — the Greeks laid siege to the City of Troy. This city was defended by the valiant Hector, son of Priam. Hector having been killed by Achilles, Troy fell at last after a heroic resistance of ten years, and was destroyed. Priam had his throat cut and Helen was brought back to Sparta. On their return, evils of all kinds befell the Greek cities. This capture of Troy by the Greeks, in the eighth century B. C. is perhaps the first event which can be considered as having any historical value.

The Trojan war has been immortalized by the admirable genius of Homer in the Iliad in which he sings the anger of Achilles, and in the Odyssey, in which he tells of the many misfortunes of Ulysses returning to his kingdom.

Religion. — The Pelasgi, adored one god, Zeus or Jupiter, but the Hellenes and the Orientals introduced into Egypt the worship of a multitude of false divinities which personified certain powers of nature or gifts of the mind and heart. The sun became Apollo; the sea, Neptune; Mars, the god of war, and a thousand fabulous adventures were attributed to them. Thus the Greeks, in their religion, deified vice and sanctioned the evil passions of the human heart by the example of the gods.

Customs. — Home life was held in high esteem by the Greeks. The father's authority was respected even by the sons who had

ruled the state or manhood; woman was honored; ancestors were even considered as household gods.

The Greeks considered it an honor to work, heroes setting the example. Ulysses handled the axe as well as the spear. The king's daughters did not disdain domestic cares, and Nausicaa, the beautiful daughter of the Phoenician king, used to go to wash at the public fountain.

QUESTIONS. — 1. Where is Greece situated? — 2. How is Greece naturally divided by the sea? — 3. Was ancient Greece very large? How was it divided? — 4. Who were the inhabitants of primitive Greece? — 5. What do you know of the first period of Grecian history? — 6. Relate the story of the Theban war? — 7. What do you know of the Trojan War?

Synoptical table for review.

Primitive Greece.

PHYSICAL	BOUNDRARIES	Mediterranean Egean Sea Ionian Sea
GEOGRAPHY	DIVISIONS	Hellas Peloponnesus Insular Greece
FIRST INHABITANTS	PELASGI HELLENES ORIENTALS	Heroes or Demi-gods Theban War Trojan War
HEROIC AGES	HEROES OR DEMI-GODS	Edipus Eteocles and Polynices Seven Chiefs Epigoni Menelaus, Helen Priam, Paris Agamemnon Achilles, Hector.
	THEBAN WAR	
	TROJAN WAR	

CHAPTER SECOND.

LYCURGUS AND SOLON.

...s: *Lycurgus — Solon — Messenian Wars.*

SUMMARY OF EVENTS.

I. — By his laws, Lycurgus created an aristocracy composed of Dorians or Spartans, who were sole masters of the land and governors of the state. The only duty imposed upon the aristocracy was the supervision of the military drills, leaving the labour and commerce in the hands of the other inhabitants.

Among the Spartans, children were considered as belonging to the State and the sole aim of education was to make a nation of good soldiers.

II. — Solon wished all the inhabitants of Athens to have their share in civic rights: his laws protected the poor and even the slave. Labour was a duty for all Athenians.

The Athenian children belonged to the family that brought them up. They were developed not only by physical but also by mental exercises. A taste for art and literature was also inculcated.

III. — Sparta, wishing to spread out into the Peloponnesus, declared war against Messenia: the struggle was long and terrible, but the Messenians finally had to submit.

LESSON.

I — **Lycurgus.** — Finding their country too small, the inhabitants of Doris cast their eyes on the Peloponnesus, in possession of Laconia and centred their forces

mostly in the city of Lacedaemon or Sparta. According to a general belief, Lycurgus, after tutoring his nephew who, from his infancy had been king of Sparta, undertook long journeys to consult wise men and to study the customs and constitutions of foreign nations. The Spartans, relying upon the oracle at Delphi, which had proclaimed him a god rather than a man, appealed to Lycurgus for a constitution.

Lycurgus presented his laws as the expression of the will of the gods. Then he withdrew a second time after requesting the Spartans to promise on oath to be faithful to him until his return. Lycurgus never returned to oblige them to maintain these laws.

Laws of Lycurgus. — Government. — 9.



Lycurgus.

The laws of Lycurgus maintained royalty at Sparta, but this royal discipline was exercised conjointly by two kings in whom were vested the religious and military powers, while the real authority was confided to thirty elders, who formed the Senate. An assembly of the people met every month at new moon and adopted or rejected the laws formulated by the Senate.

Social Condition. — 10. Lycurgus, wishing to make the Spartans a military people, endeavored to dissuade them from the love of ambition, wealth, luxury and effeminacy; accordingly, he divided the land into equal parts and each Spartan received a part which became inalienable property. The currency was of iron, so heavy that the value of one hundred dollars required a cart to trans-

The meals were frugal and were taken in public; the citizen, even the king, was obliged to assist at the repasts under penalty of losing his political rights. Luxury and arts were prohibited. Excepting war and military drills, the only occupations of the Spartans were those of those and public discussions. Manual labor, industry and commerce were considered of minor importance, and were left to the Laconians (former inhabitants of the country) and to the Helots or slaves. The family was of small account in the background. The parents were allowed the care of their vigorous children till the age of seven, after which they became the property of the state and were subjected to military training.

Education. 11. In this system of education, reading, writing and labor had no part. The child's soul was trained to love of country, courage and patience; at the same time the body was inured to hardship by races, long marches, wrestling and fighting.

The child, barefooted, almost naked, wearing the same costume in winter and summer, sleeping on reeds, was prepared for the hardships of camp-life. He was given very little food so as to compel him to forage for what he needed. Stealing was allowed; if caught, it was discovered the culprit was punished, not for his偷窃, but for his lack of skill.

A boy, having stolen a young fox, hid it under his tunic and allowed it to gnaw out his bowels rather than betray himself by a sign of pain.

Apart from patriotism, the child was taught respect for the aged. This was necessary in a state wherein the chief authority rested in the elders, or magistrates. The young girls received an education similar to that of their brothers; this virile training resulted in high patriotic sentiments.

II. — Solon. — 12. Attica was peopled by the Ionians; the chief city was Athens. Solon, a descendant of the Solon family and a philosopher and poet, was the first magistrate. His merits placed him among the "Seven

Sage" of Greece who rendered their age so illustrious. He thus possessed all that was needed to frame the best constitution known to antiquity with the exception of that given to the Jewish nation by God Himself.

Constitution of Solon. — Government. — 13. By his constitution, Solon placed the executive power in the

hands of nine archons and gave each Athenian a share in political rights. The poor and the mercenaries, it is true, were excluded from public offices, but to counterbalance the exclusion they were allowed to vote in the public assembly. Above this assembly which framed the laws and appointed officers, was a Senate, composed of four hundred members, who previously sanctioned a subject before presenting it to the assembly for discussion. The Areopagus, composed of the ex-archons, looked



Solon

after the morals and revised all popular decisions.

Social Condition. — 14. Solon's constitution, a satisfactory union of aristocracy and democracy, divided the Athenians, according to their wealth, into four classes. However, any citizen could, by his labour and economy, rise from a lower to a higher class.

Solon's genius, essentially human, could give none but human laws. The penalty of death was reserved solely for voluntary homicide. The poor who were unable to pay their debts, were reduced to sell their children or themselves. Solon's first act was to cancel all debts and remove the rights of creditors against their debtors. He

ived the same liberal spirit towards slaves. He decreed that any slave ill-treated by his master, might get that he be sold and thus pass over to a milder master. No one was allowed to strike a slave; his death or even an insult to him was avenged as if the slave had been a free man.

Agriculture, industry and commerce were encouraged. idleness was severely punished. Among the Athenians, labor was always honorable, while the culture of the mind was looked upon not only as a necessity, but, at times, as a passion.

Education. — 15. Solon intended the family to be respected, parents having full authority over their children. At the age of sixteen only they became pupils of the state. Athenian education aimed at forming the mind as well as the body. Love of labor, good morals, love of country and a taste for art and literature were cultivated in the children.

The young girls lived apart in the gynaeceum of their father's house. There they were prepared for the duties of their state and there, also, they studied literature and art.

The republic of Athens under Solon became a liberal, enlightened and generous democracy,—the heart and intellect of Greece.

III. — Messenian Wars. — 16. The people formed by the laws of Lycurgus, were essentially military and thirsted for war and above all for conquest. Already masters of Laconia, they intended to conquer Argolis and Messenia. About the year 800 B. C. Sparta had gained possession of the greater part of Argolis. The Spartans, relying on the superiority of their discipline and armament, believed that they could easily win Messenia also, but the Messenians found unexpected strength in their patriotism.

This long, terrible struggle is known in history as the Messenian Wars. The first war lasted from 744 to 724;

after a desperate struggle of twenty years, the Messenians were overcome and reduced to the condition of Helots.

At the end of thirty-nine years, they revolted under the leadership of Aristomenes, who, by his victories, caused even Sparta to tremble. The treason of an ally brought about the defeat of Aristomenes and his army. This second war lasted seventeen years (685-668). A great number of the vanquished then left Messenia and founded Messina in Sicily.



Olympic games.

The Messenians again revolted in 464; this third war lasted ten years. Finally the insurgents had to surrender, but they were allowed to leave Peloponnesus. They asked for refuge at Athens and the Athenians allowed them to settle at Naupactus which they had just conquered.

Colonies. The overcrowding population and the interior revolutions forced the Greeks to leave their country. Emigration was singularly facilitated for them by the geographical position of their country. The Greek colonies soon spread along the

coastal cities of the Mediterranean, in Southern Italy, which was called Magna Graecia, in greater Greece and in eastern Sicily where Syracuse became an important Hellenic city. The islands of the Aegean Sea and the Asiatic coasts were covered with flourishing Greek colonies of which the most famous were Smyrna, Ephesus and Miletus.

Amphictyones. — Amphictyones were State associations, political as well as religious. Each of the confederate cities sent its delegates. After assisting at the sacrifices and repasts in honor of the gods, they amicably settled the disputes which might have arisen between the cities which they represented.

Public Games. — At certain stated periods the public games reunited the Greeks of all countries. These games, in which the Greeks alone could take part, although strangers were admitted as spectators, consisted of various exercises; races, wrestling-matches, and musical and poetical contests. They greatly contributed to the development of art and literature as well as to the maintenance of patriotism and national pride. The most famous of these games were the Olympian in honor of Jupiter. They surpassed all others in pomp and number. They were held every fourth year, hence the name Olympiad given to that interval of time.

QUESTIONS. — 8. Who was Lycurgus? To what part of Greece did he belong? — 9. What government did Lycurgus establish at Sparta? — 10. What was the social condition of the country? — 11. What education did children receive? — 12. Who was Solon? — 13. Sketch the government at Athens under the constitution of Solon. — 14. What was the social condition of Athens? — 15. Describe the system of education at Athens. — 16. Give the origin of the Messenian Wars. — Give a summary of each of these wars.

Synoptical table for review.

Lycurgus and Solon.

LYCURGUS AT SPARTA	TOURNEYS LAWS ARISTOCRATIC GOVERNMENT	King Senate Assembly
	SOCIAL CONDITION EDUCATION	Military, without wealth, without luxury, without nobility. State Future soldier Patriotism Respect for the aged.
SOLON AT ATHENS	ROYAL DESCENT DEMOCRATIC GOVERNMENT	Philosopher Poet
	SOCIAL CONDITION EDUCATION	Archons Senate Assembly Rights of Citizens Poor, Slaves : Manual labor Intellectual labor. Family Body and mind Morals
MESSENIAN WARS	FIRST : 744-724	Messenians conquered Helots
	SECOND : 685-668	Aristomenes Treason : Defeat : Messina
	THIRD : 494-454	Defeats Naupactus

CHAPTER III.

MEDIAN WARS. — PERICLES.

TOPICS: *Median Wars, Miltiades, Xerxes, Leonidas, Themistocles, Aristides, Cimon, Pericles and his age.*

SUMMARY OF EVENTS.

I. — The Median Wars were waged by the Greeks against the Medes and Persians. In the first, the army sent by Darius against Greece was defeated by Miltiades at Marathon.

During the Second War, Xerxes himself came down into Attica, with a formidable army. A great number of his men were killed by Leonidas at Thermopylae and the remnant of his army was cut to pieces at Plataea by the allied Greeks. His fleet was repulsed at Salamis by Themistocles and later, destroyed at Mycale by Xanthippus.

The Third Median War was undertaken by the Greeks against the Persians because the former yearned for the independence of the colonies of Asia Minor. The war ended by a treaty favorable to Cimon which secured the freedom of the Asiatic Greeks.

II. — Pericles took advantage of the influence he obtained by his eloquence to place himself at the head of the Athenian government. His great intelligence and moral qualities together with the protection he gave to arts and literature made of his administration such a fortunate and brilliant period that it has been called the "Age of Pericles".

LESSON.

I.—Median Wars. — Causes. — Darius. — 20. The origin of that famous war of fifty years which the Greeks waged against the combined forces of Media and Persia was the vast extent of territory which the conquests of Cyrus, Cambyses and Darius had given to the Persian Empire. The latter had thus been brought into contact with Greece. The immediate cause was the plan formed by Darius to subdue the Hellenic Peninsula.

The Greek colonies in Asia Minor, along the Ægean Sea, were known as Ionia. These colonies had been taken by Cyrus, but subsequently revolted against Persian rule. The aid given to them by Athens hastened events and the war began.

First war (500-483) — Marathon, Miltiades. — 21. The first Persian fleet under the command of Mardonius was destroyed by a tempest before reaching Greece and the land army, decimated by cold and sickness, was forced to retreat (492).

Darius was not discouraged. He sent heralds demanding from each of the Grecian States earth and water as an acknowledgement of his supremacy. Athens and Sparta were so indignant that they violated the law of nations, and seizing the heralds, they cast one into a pit and the other into a well, telling them to take there the earth and water they desired.

In 490, a second fleet set sail from Asia carrying an army of 110,000 men who landed in Attica. The Athenians begged for help from the other Greeks, but their request everywhere met with refusal. So the whole force of the struggle was left to Athens.

Ten thousand heavily-armed Athenians under the command of Miltiades faced the enemy on the plains of Marathon. A terrible combat ensued. The defeat of the Persians was complete. Six thousand lay dead on the field, while the loss of the Athenians numbered but one hundred and ninety men.

The Athenians ever considered Marathon as their national victory. Historians, poets and orators have vied with one another in singing its praises.

Resentment of Darius. — Humiliated by the Marathon disaster, Darius resolved to take signal revenge on the petty nation that had dared defy him. Moreover, such a defeat, if left unavenged, might prove for his tributary states a dangerous incentive to rebellion. During the three years following the battle of Marathon, the whole of Asia was put in movement by the enlisting of soldiers and the gathering of horses and provisions. In the fourth year, Darius died. Xerxes, his son, heir to his passions as well as to his power, carried on the war preparations begun by his father.

Prudence of Themistocles. — After the victory of Marathon the Athenians believed that the war was ended. However the counsels of Themistocles convinced him that it had scarcely commenced and that Greece should be prepared to fight yet more numerous forces. Foreseeing that on land the struggle would be unequal, Themistocles prepared for it on sea, where the ability of the Greeks had every advantage over the Persians, whose fleets were inferior. Athens had already fitted out 200 galleys accustomed to naval operations, before Xerxes had time to set out with his army.



Themistocles.

Second Median war. — (482-478). — Thermopylae. — Leonidas. — 22. Xerxes, succeeded Darius and in 480 advanced towards the Hellespont (Strait of the Dardanelles) with the largest army ever assembled: two million men and a fleet of 1700 ships. Terrified at such a multitude, Macedonia and Thessaly humbly submitted to Persia.

The Persians reached Thermopylae, a narrow pass between the mountains and the sea, considered as the gateway to Greece, as it was the only route which led from Thessaly into Central Greece. Xerxes expected to find

all the Grecian troops massed at Thermopylæ. But he found only 300 Spartans under the leadership of Leonidas, their king. Xerxes summoned the Spartan general to deliver up his arms. «Come and take them!» answered the undaunted leader. For two days, the Medes tried to take the narrow pass, only to be dashed to pieces by the Spartan host. But a traitor revealed to their enemy a path known only to shepherds and which led through the forests of oaks to the top of the mountain. The Persians rushed up the path. In obedience to the Spartan laws which forbade soldiers to retreat, Leonidas and his companions remained at their post until all fell in the conflict. The following sentence was inscribed on their monument:

Go, stranger, to listening Spartans tell,
That here, obedient to their laws, we fell.

Salamis.—**Themistocles.**—23. Masters of Thermopylæ, the Persians overran Attica. Following the advice of Themistocles, the Athenians deserted their city and withdrew to their ships. Meanwhile, Xerxes pillaged Athens and reduced it to ashes.

The Grecian fleet, inferior to that of the Persians but much lighter, took up its position in the Strait of Salamis, where Themistocles succeeded in enticing the enemy. The ability of the Greeks and the talent of Themistocles overcame the Persian multitude. The vessels of the crowded enemy, too numerous and bulky in that narrow passage, were of no help to one another. Seated on an eminence near the shore, Xerxes sobbed at the sight of the destruction of his fleet. With cries of despair he gave orders to his land armies to flee, then, fearing that the victorious ships might hurry to the Hellespont to prevent his return, he hastened to cross the strait in a small boat.

Plataea. — **Mycale.** — 24. Xerxes had left in Greece 300,000 men commanded by Mardonius. This army was

Finally routed at the battle of Plataea, and on the same day Xanthippus completed the destruction of the Persian fleet at the promontory of Mycale. Thus ended the second Persian invasion of Greece.

Preponderance of Athens. — 25. The triumph of Greece was general but to Athens fell the honor of resisting the invasion. Sparta had been the leading nation before the Median Wars. These successes now gave Athens the ascendancy. This city, once so glorious, was now but a heap of ruins. Despite the opposition of the jealous Spartans, Themistocles restored it and rebuilt its walls. He constructed and fortified the magnificent port of Piraeus, and established funds for the yearly construction of vessels. In a spirit of revenge, Sparta aroused the jealousy of the Athenians against Themistocles whom they ostracized and sent to Persia where, some say, he took poison to avoid fighting against his country.

Aristides. — 26. While Themistocles raised Athens from its ruins, Aristides, surmised the Just on account of his strict integrity, prevailed upon all the Grecian states to accept the formation of a permanent league against Persia. He organized a confederacy which grouped under the leadership of Athens the cities and islands exposed to the attacks of the Persians. Each confederate state paid an annual tribute to Athens. Athens in return promised protection and defence. Henceforth this city



Minerva

(protectress of Athens).

became all powerful in Greece. Aristides guarded the treasury of this confederation so conscientiously, that after having administered the richest finances of the times, he died in such poverty that the State was obliged to pay his funeral expenses and to give a dowry to his daughters.

Third Median War. — 27. Delivered from Persian invasion, Athens wished to secure liberty for all who were of Hellenic origin and purposed to take Ionia from the sway of the Persians. A fleet of one hundred vessels, Spartan, Athenian, and Ionian, under the command of Pausanias, king of Sparta, drove the Persians from the greater part of the Isle of Cyprus, then sailed towards the Hellespont and having reduced and plundered the city of By-



Aristides and the peasant.

zantium, returned with immense booty.

Pausanias, elated with success, forgot that he had command of free men. The Ionians could not bear his haughtiness and contempt and offered the leadership to Cimon, the Athenian. Thus Sparta lost forever the naval supremacy which passed over to Athens.

Cimon. — 28. Cimon, son of Miltiades, pursued the war against Persia for twenty years. He deprived the Persians of the entire coast of Asia Minor, then destroyed most of their armies and defeated their fleet near the mouth of the river Eurymedon (470).

During the following years, he carried on his conquests with such vigor that Artaxerxes Longimanus, successor of Xerxes, in order to obtain peace, was reduced to sign a humiliating treaty which restored the independence of the Asiatic Greeks and obliged the Persians to withdraw their fleets from the Aegean Sea. This treaty, called after the general who negotiated it, (449) put an end to the Median wars by the complete emancipation of the Greek nation.

Pericles. — 29. The Treaty of Cimon obtained for Greece a permanent peace after its long wars. This period marks the most brilliant epoch in the history of Athens. By depth of intellect and able administration Pericles, son of Xanthippus and victor of Mycale, assured his prosperity. He took advantage of the influence obtained by his eloquence to rise above the magistracy; for thirty years he was really King of Athens. This king of superior gifts rendered his administration so brilliant that it has ever been known in history as «Age of Pericles».

Pericles, Protector of Arts and Literature. — 30. Art and literature were brought to the height of perfection, and owing to the protection of Pericles, Athens was filled with masterpieces of architecture, sculpture and painting. The ruins seen today testify to the greatness of this period.



Pericles.

Many illustrious men graced this era, — Phidias in sculpture, Appelles in painting, Eschylus, Sophocles and Euripides in tragedy, Herodotus and Thucydides in history, Aristophanes in comedy, Anaxagoras in philosophy, and Hippocrates in medicine.

QUESTIONS. — 20. What were the Median Wars? What were the causes? — 21. Relate the events of the First Median War — 22. How did the Second Median War begin? Describe the battle of Thermopylae. — 23. Describe the battle of Salamis — 24. What became of the army and fleet left by Xerxes in Greece. — 25. What was the result on Athens of the first two Median Wars? What did Themistocles do to restore this city from its ruins? — 26. What services did Aristides render to Athens? — 27. What was the end of the Third Median War? What success did Pausanias obtain? — 28. What part did Cimon take in the Third Median War? — 29. Who was Pericles and what works did he accomplish for Athens?

Synoptical table for review.

Median Wars.

MEDIAN WARS 500-449	CAUSES	Extension of the Persian Empire. Ambition of Darius. Aid given to Ionia.
	FIRST: 500-485 DARIUS	First fleet. Second fleet. Marathon.
	SECOND 480-478 XERXES	Macedonia and Thessaly. Thermopylæ. Salamis. Plateæ. Mycale.
	PREPONDERANCE OF ATHENS	Themistocles. Aristides.
THIRD: ARTAXERXES		Cyprus, Byzantium. Eurymedon. Treaty.
PERICLES	Son of Xanthippus	
	Able administrator. Skilful politician. Great captain. Protector of arts and literature.	

CHAPTER FOURTH.

PELOPONNESIAN WAR.

TOPICS: *Peloponnesian War.* — *Retreat of the Ten Thousand.* — *Pelopidas and Epaminondas.*

SUMMARY OF EVENTS.

- I. — The Peloponnesian War was a struggle of twenty-seven years between Athens and Sparta. The jealousy of the latter was the cause of the war. A disastrous expedition into Sicily led to the fall of Athens — this was accomplished by the defeat at Aegospotami.
- II. — Some Lacedaemonian soldiers had been hired by Cyrus the younger: Cyrus having been killed, these ten thousand Greeks in order to return to their country successfully effected a retreat of five hundred leagues through all kinds of dangers and difficulties.
- III. — Pelopidas and Epaminondas were two Theban heroes who obtained the supremacy of their country in Greece. Leuctra and Mantinea were their principal victories.

LESSON.

- I. — Peloponnesian war. — Cause. — Duration. —

28. The Peloponnesian War broke out between Athens and Sparta; the cause of this war was the jealousy of Sparta which could not bear the supremacy of Athens. With the exception of a peace interval of six years this war lasted twenty-seven years. It may be divided into three periods; the first, from 431 to 421 is known as the "Ten Years' War"; the second period extends from 416 to 413, and the third, from 412 to 404 B. C.

First Period. — The Ten Years' War. — 29. The first period of the Peloponnesian War is taken up with the early ravages of the Spartans in Attica, and the incursions of the Athenian fleet on the Peloponnesian coast.

Victories and defeats on both sides finally brought about a truce called after the Athenian general the Peace of Nicias. By this treaty Athens and Sparta agreed to suspend hostilities for fifty years. All conquered territories on either side were returned and conditions were about the same as at the opening of the war.

In 429, besides being a prey to the horrors of war, Athens was ravaged by a plague which carried off several thousands, among whom was Pericles. This great man was consoled on his deathbed by the fact that never during his life had he caused any citizen to put on mourning.

Second Period. — (416-413). — 30. This peace lasted but five years, war being declared through the influence of Alcibiades. At this time Athens was ruled alternately by two men, Nicias and Alcibiades. The former, a good general, but timid and undecided, grouped the more prudent citizens about him; the latter, a relative of Pericles, was the people's favorite. Through ambitious motives he longed for war and hoped to be given the command of the army.

Accordingly he incited his fellow-citizens to attack Sparta indirectly by conquering its ally, Syracuse, the most flourishing Greek colony in Sicily. Nicias opposed the recklessness of this enterprise but in vain; his plans were ignored and the expedition set forth.

The Sicilian Expedition. — (415). — 31. Through the careful preparations of Alcibiades, the success of the enterprise seemed to be assured but before operations had begun, the commander, having been accused of polluting the idols, was recalled to Athens. Alcibiades refused to obey and withdrew to Sparta thus becoming the enemy of his country.

During this time the fleet and the Athenian army under the command of Nicias were defeated and destroyed at Syracuse. The generals were put to death; the soldiers perished of hunger and hardship or were sold as slaves. This was the prelude to the final defeat of the Athenians in the Peloponnesian War.

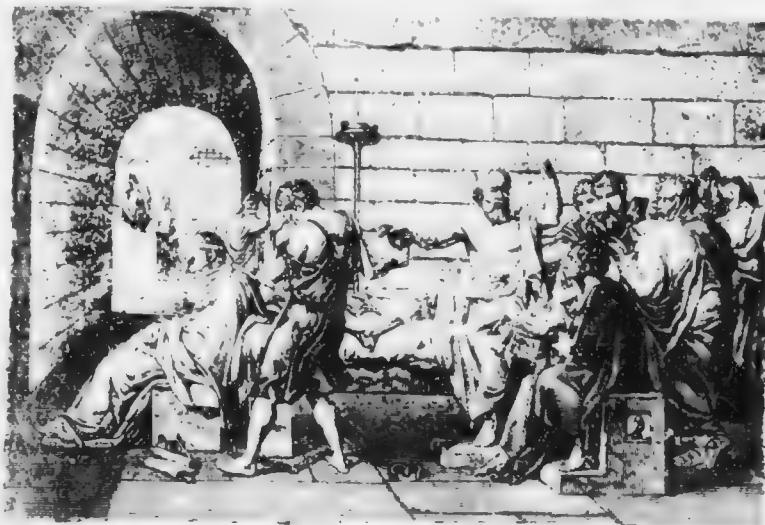
Third Period. — (412-404). — 32. Sparta, encouraged by the defeat of her rival, Athens, and aided by the genius of her former enemy, Alcibiades, renewed the war. The Athenians, dismayed by their losses recalled Alcibiades as the only man really able to retrieve their fortunes. He eagerly acceded to the proposal and again took command of the Athenian fleet which gained two victories over the Lacedaemonians. The time of the second leadership of Alcibiades was the most brilliant period of the Peloponnesian War (411-407). He gained several brilliant victories, but Athens, exhausted and forsaken by her allies and torn by internal dissensions was unable to follow up these successes.

Lysander.—Aegospotami 33. Sparta had just concluded an alliance with a former common enemy, the king of Persia; favored by the aid given by the Asiatic monarch, Lysander, a most skilful Lacedaemonian general, dealt a death blow to Athens at the naval battle of Aegospotami (404). This defeat was irreparable and Athens was forced to open its gates to the enemy. Its walls were demolished and its ships burned. The democracy was destroyed and replaced by thirty magistrates whom history has branded with the name of «The Thirty Tyrants».

Athens was then but an ally or rather a subject of Sparta. The Peloponnesian War was at an end; its only result was the establishment of Spartan hegemony, that is, the extension of its merciless dominion over the whole of Greece.

Socrates. — At the time of the Peloponnesian Wars, there lived in Athens a great philosopher, Socrates, who had deemed it his duty to fight unceasingly in the cause of truth. He was

l of being in favor of aristocracy, but above all, of ruining worship of the gods for which he substituted that of one who sees all things, hears all things, is present every where itches over all at one and the same time. This last accusation was justified and redounds to the glory of Socrates. philosopher did not attempt to escape death and was cool to drink the fatal hemlock (400). He heard his sentence in the utmost composure. To one of his friends who was intent to see him thus die innocent, Socrates replied: "Why, would you rather have me die guilty?" He passed away while conversing with his friends on the immortality of the soul. The most celebrated of his disciples was



Death of Socrates.

II. — **Retreat of the Ten Thousand.** — 34. After the Peloponnesian War, a great number of the Lacedaemonian exiles were idle. Thirty thousand of them engaged in the service of Cyrus the Younger, the rebellious brother of Artaxerxes II, king of Persia. Cyrus having been defeated at the battle of Cunaxa (401), the Persians summarily seized the Greek generals and put them to death.

There then remained ten thousand Lacedaemonian soldiers without leaders, five hundred leagues from

their country, hemmed in by deep rivers and surrounded by enemies, without guides or provisions. An Athenian, Xenophon, revived their drooping courage and persuaded them to proceed on their march and thus effect the most extraordinary retreat recorded in history. He himself has related its details. After a march of twenty months 8400 of these soldiers reached Greece. This retreat showed forth the weakness of the Persians and the strength of the Greeks.

Revenge of Artaxerxes II. — 35. Irritated by the help the Lacedaemonians gave his brother, Artaxerxes II revenged himself on the Ionian Cities in Asia Minor. These cities in distress implored the protection of Sparta which then held the supremacy in Greece. Agesilaus, a Spartan general, obtained several victories over the Persians and was preparing another attack when he was suddenly recalled to Europe.

To ward off the threatening offensive, Artaxerxes II distributed gold throughout Greece. He had just formed a league against Sparta with Thebes, Athens, Argos and other cities chafing under the intolerable yoke of the Lacedaemonians.

Treaty of Antalcidas. — 36. At first Agesilaus defeated the coalition at Chaeronea, but soon the Thebans gained the advantage, owing to the destruction of the Spartan fleet by the Athenians. The Spartans then hastened to make peace with Artaxerxes II. (387). The disgraceful treaty of Antalcidas (named after the man who negotiated it) placed all the Greek colonies of Asia Minor under the yoke of the Persian king, to whom a kind of suzerainty was yielded, allowing him to intervene even in the affairs of Greece. With this humiliating condition Sparta retained its hegemony or influence over Greek cities in Europe.

Thebes soon vied with Sparta and wrested from her this remnant of power. Until then the Theban republic had had no influence in Greece; Boeotian air was said to be too thick to produce a genius. Pelopidas and Epaminondas removed this prejudice, and made their country famous.

The Spartans at Thebes. — 37. Two rival factions were stirring discord in Thebes; in 382, a Lacedaemonian general, profiting by the division, took the city by treachery. Three or four hundred Thebans then sought refuge in Athens where they were hospitably received. Four years later one of these exiles, Pelopidas, recaptured Thebes.



Pelopidas and his friends entering the festal hall.

After having placed himself in communication with his friends at Thebes, Pelopidas with twelve companions disguised as hunting-parties succeeded in entering the city unnoticed during a severe winter storm. The Spartan magistrates were at the time attending a grand banquet and were already heated with wine. A letter from Pelopidas, revealing the danger, was brought to the governor. "See to his affairs to-morrow!" said he as he slipped the letter under his coat in his fashion, without even opening it. Suddenly the conspirators entered and easily dispatched all the drunken men. Epaminondas, a friend of Pelopidas, summoned all the citizens to arms. The prisons containing the Theban exiles were thrown open and the Lacedaemonian garrison was forced

III. — Theban Hegemony. — Pelopidas and Epaminondas. — 38. Though Thebes was free, it had to be defended against the Spartans who were seeking revenge. The Thebans, sustained by the Athenians and led by Epaminondas and Pelopidas, fought valiantly. The Athenians then withdrew their aid for a period of seven years and to the Thebans remained the glory of conquering the dreaded Spartans. In 371, Epaminondas, assisted by Pelopidas, crushed a formidable army of Lacedaemonians at Leuctra in Boeotia.

Epaminondas did not become elated over his triumph; he said only that he was happy at the joy this success would give to his father and mother.

With the victory of Leuctra began the decline of the Spartan domination; the majority of the cities forced the Lacedaemonian garrisons to withdraw and placed themselves under the protection of Thebes. The hegemony thus passed from Sparta to Thebes.

Pelopidas invaded Thessaly and Macedonia in order to secure the supremacy of Thebes. He gained many battles but was killed in a final victory, near Pharsalus, in 364.

Epaminondas, in turn, invaded the Peloponnesus four times, destroying the Spartan power and even threatening Sparta itself. In a moment of victory at the battle of Mantinea (363), he fell mortally wounded. "My life has been long enough," said he, "I die unconquered."

When one of his friends grew sad at the thought that Epaminondas was to die childless; "No," replied the dying man, I leave behind me two immortal daughters, the victory of Leuctra and that of Mantinea."

Downfall of Thebes. — With the death of Epaminondas and Pelopidas Theban supremacy, which had been due entirely to the valor of these two generals, ended.

Greece, exhausted by her ceaseless wars, was in need of peace. This was obtained by an agreement concluded by Thebes, Sparta

to be
enge.
d by
The
seven
condas,
y of
e said
to his
of the
orced
place
The
order
many
salus.
four
treat-
battle
y life
I.
Epami-
leave
ra and
as and
to the
peace
Sparta

— Athens. Moreover, Greece was soon to lose its independence and pass under the rule of the king of Macedonia.

QUESTIONS. — 28. What was the cause of the Peloponnesian War ? Into how many periods may it be divided ? — 29. What happened during the Ten Years' War ? — 30. On what occasion was the treaty of Nicias broken ? — 31. Did the Athenians succeed in their expedition into Sicily ? — 32. How did the defeat of Sicily affect Athens ? What part did Alcibiades take in the period of the Peloponnesian War ? — 33. What alliance caused Sparta finally to conquer Athens ? What was the result of the Peloponnesian War ? — 35. How did Artaxerxes II revenge himself for the help given to Cyrus the Younger by the Athenians ? — 36. What events led up to the treaty of Antalcidas ? What were the conditions of this treaty ? — 37. How did the Spartans obtain possession of Thebes ? How were they driven out ? 38. Relate the efforts of Pelopidas and Epamondas to assure the supremacy of Thebes.

Synoptical table for review.

Peloponnesian War.

PELOPONNE- SIAN WAR	431-404	CAUSE	} Jealousy of Sparta and } Athens
		FIRST PERIOD : 431-421	} Ravages } Incursions } Peace of Nicias
		SECOND PERIOD : 416-413	} Expedition into Sicily } Nicias } Alcibiades } Disaster
		THIRD PERIOD : 412-404	} Isolation of Athens } Recall of Alcibiades } Athenian victories } Alliance with Persian- } Lysander, Aegospotami
HEGEMONY OF SPARTA			

Synoptical table for review.—Continued.

Peloponnesian War.

RETREAT OF THE TEN THOUSAND PELOPIDAS AND EPAMIN- ONDAS	CYRUS THE YOUNGER	Artaxerxes II Lacedæmonians Cunaxa
	XENOPHON	Retreat Difficulties and dangers
	REVENGE OF ARTAXER- XES II	Ionian Cities Agesilaus Coalition Treaty of Antalcidas.
	THEBES	Captured by the Spartans. Set free by Pelopidas
	ALLIANCE OF ATHENS	
	HEGEMONY OF THEBES	
	PELOPIDAS	Thessaly and Macedonia Pharsalus
	EPAMINONDAS	Leuctra Peloponnesus Mantinea

CHAPTER FIFTH.

MACEDONIA

TOPICS: *Philip of Macedon, -- Alexander the Great.*

SUMMARY OF EVENTS.

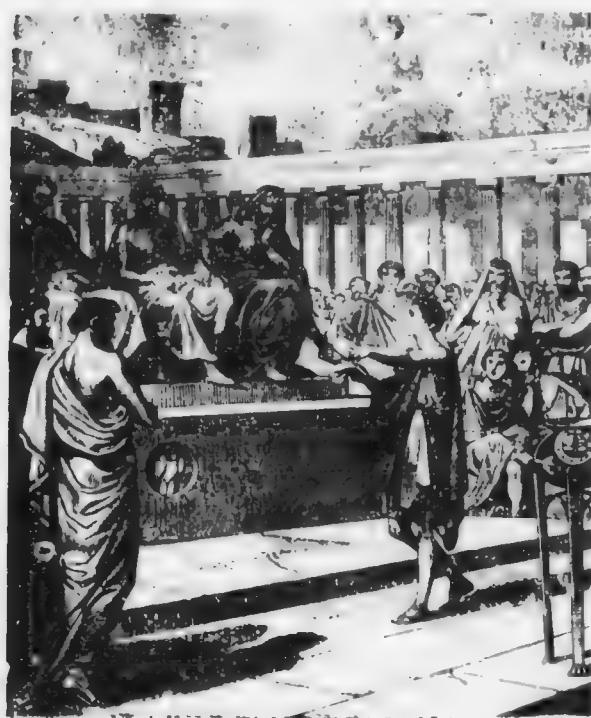
- I. — The ambition of Philip of Macedon was to conquer Greece. Demosthenes, a great Athenian orator, roused his fellow-citizens to resist Philip's invasions. The Greek army was finally vanquished at Chaeronea and Greece became apparently an ally, though really a dependent.
- II. — In less than four years Alexander conquered the immense Persian Empire. He then continued his victorious march across Central Asia beyond the Indus. On his return to Babylon, he endeavored to organize his vast dominions, but died at the early age of thirty-three.

LESSON.

I. — Macedonia. — **Philip II.** — 39. Macedonia, situated north of Thessaly, between Thrace on the east and Illyria on the west, was inhabited by poor highlanders. These descendants of Greeks and Illyrians were always at war with their barbarous neighbors. Royalty had always been maintained among the Macedonians. Philip II who reigned from 360 to 336 effected changes which brought his country to the foremost place among the nations.

Territorial growth. — 40. Philip formed a powerful army the nucleus of which was the "Macedonian Phal-

aux., a corps of infantry formed of 16,000 men, armed with shields and swords, and carrying picks more than twenty feet in length. For a whole century no enemy could resist this phalanx, aptly styled an enormous beast bristling with iron.



Demosthenes pleading against his tutors.
Philip II then formed the project of conquering Greece.

Demosthenes and Philip II. — 41. At this point an adversary arose in the person of Demosthenes, the greatest of Greek orators. This great man, as skilful and politic as he was eloquent, had penetrated Philip's ambitious designs, and strove to avert the danger to which his country was exposed.

By means of his powerful army, Philip forced the neighboring peoples to give up that part of their territory lying within the natural boundaries of Macedonia. He next took possession of the Athenian colonies of Amphipolis and Pvdna, which bordered on the Mediterranean and had thus prevented the Macedonians from reaching the sea. Philip II then

Demosthenes was unfortunate on his first appearance in the *hētērion*: his stammering voice, imperfect respiration, and ungraceful gestures brought upon him general ridicule. Undaunted by his failure, he returned to his studies determined to acquire perfect delivery. To cure himself of stammering he recited long orations with small pebbles in his mouth, and to strengthen his lungs and deepen his respiration he repeated verses in a loud voice while mounting difficult places. He often repaired to the sea-shore and while the waves were most violently agitated, he declaimed aloud in order to accustom himself to the clamor of public assemblies. Thus it was that he acquired all the qualities of an orator. He was at the height of his genius when Philip attacked Greece.

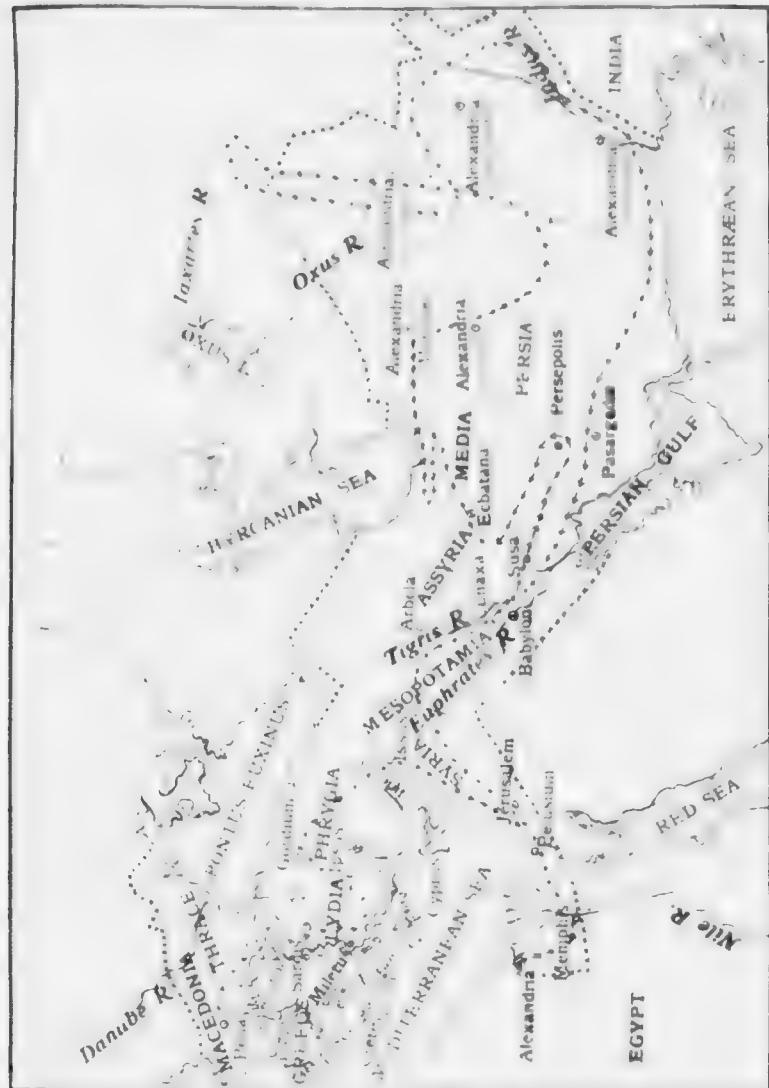
By his «*Philippics*», speeches filled with vehemence, Demosthenes strove to arouse the apathetic Athenians and spur them on to resist Philip. The efforts of Demosthenes were crippled by the eloquence of an inferior orator, Aeschines, who had been corrupted by the gold of Philip. Thus the King of Macedon, already conqueror of Thessaly, succeeded in taking Chalcidice and Thermopylae.

A Sacred War had broken out against a people of Central Greece, who had been accused of ploughing certain lands that were consecrated to Apollo. Aeschines used his influence to secure a decree giving to Philip the leadership of this war; by this strategy Philip gained entrance into Greece. He made haste to cross Thermopylae, and suddenly unmasking his design fell upon Boeotia. Demosthenes stirred up the Athenians to help Thebes, but the Greek army being poorly commanded was defeated at Chaeronea in 338 B. C.

Thebes was plundered but Philip signed with the Athenians the Treaty of Demades, so called after the Athenian orator who negotiated it. By this treaty Macedonia became apparently an ally of Athens, whereas in reality it was its master.

Philip then passed into Peloponnesus. All the Hellenes, convened in council at Corinth, solemnly acknowledged his authority and chose him commander-in-chief of the Greek forces. At this crisis Philip died, assassinated by one of his officers (336).

II. — Alexander the Great. — (336-323). Philip II left his son, Alexander, a young man of twenty, heir to



the throne. His genius had been developed by the education he had received from the celebrated philosopher, Aristotle.

At eighteen, Alexander showed a spirit of courage and a contempt of danger which surprised even his own father. In the royal stables, there was a vicious horse, Bucephalus, which no Macedonian lord had dared to mount. Alexander succeeded in taming him and kept him as his war-horse. Filled with admiration for his son, Philip folded him in his arms, saying: "Oh! my son, seek another kingdom more worthy of you; Macedonia is not sufficient."

The nations that Philip had conquered looked upon the new king's juniority as the golden opportunity for throwing off the yoke. They rose in rebellion but were soon subdued by Alexander. He defeated the Greeks who had leagued together under Demosthenes and were preparing to invade Macedonia. The whole of Greece then hastened to submit to Alexander and proclaimed him commander-in-chief of the Greek forces against Persia.

Conquest of the Persian Empire.—43. Alexander displayed his genius by crossing over into Asia with 35,000 men and destroying the armies of Darius in three great battles: Granicus in 334, Issus in 333, and Arbela near the ruins of Nineveh in 331.

The victory of Issus opened for Alexander a gate to Damascus, Syria, and Phoenicia. The conquest of Phoenicia led to that of Palestine. When the army reached Jerusalem, the high-priest Jaddus went forth to meet the conqueror who, inspired with reverence for the minister of the Most High, commanded that no harm should come to the city and even granted favors to the Jews.

After the battle of Arbela, the famous cities of the Persian Empires — Babylon, Susa, Persepolis and Cebatana — threw open their gates to the conqueror. Four years had thus amply sufficed for Alexander to take possession of the whole of Western Asia.



Alexander.

Alexander assured the mother and the wife of Darius that they might retain the honor and title of queens, because he had undertaken the war against Darius not through personal hatred, but for the purpose of contending for the supremacy of Asia. The following day, Alexander visited their apartments, accompanied by his friend, Hephestion. Not knowing which was the king, the mother of Darius paid homage to Hephestion. Being told of her mistake, she drew back in confusion; but the king replied, "You are not mistaken: he also is Alexander."



Alexander visiting the family of Darius.

Conquest of India. — 44. Alexander, now master of the Persian Empire, undertook the conquest of Central Asia and planned to extend his dominion as far as the Indus. A series of victories led him beyond the river where his exhausted soldiers forced him to end his conquests and return to the West. Alexander returned to Babylon with his army, while his fleet explored the route to India (325).

Porus, king of one of the districts of India, notwithstanding his formidable army, suffered defeat. "How do you wish to be treated?" asked the conqueror.—"Like a king," replied the vanquished monarch. Touched by his magnanimity Alexander made Porus satrap of a large province composed of his conquered kingdom and other countries which had been lately added to it.

The Death of Alexander. — 45. On his return to Babylon Alexander conceived vast projects of civilization but was seized with a fever and died after an illness of ten days, at the age of thirty-three.

Holy Scripture sketches the life of Alexander and his conquests in brief but telling terms : "The earth was quiet before him." Alexander the Great was undoubtedly one of the most extraordinary of men. He was not only a conqueror but an able politician and skilful organizer. By his tolerance of the customs and his profound respect for their religion and national customs, he secured the permanent loyalty of his subjects.

In regions hitherto unknown he built several Greek cities which were called after him, Alexandria. Their sites had been wisely chosen that despite the lapse of years, they are still the chief cities of Asia. (Herat, Kandahar, etc.) So cleverly did he trace the great highways of communication, that even to this day they are the sole routes open to the caravans of Western Asia.

These roads tended to the development of commerce and industry by extending the benefits of Greek civilization as far as the Indus.

Division of the Empire. — Alexander having appointed no heir to his dominions, after his death his generals struggled among themselves for the mastery, clamoring for a share of the empire they had helped to form. The strife lasted until 282 when Alexander's empire was definitely divided into three great kingdoms : (1) Macedonia and Greece; (2) Egypt; (3) Syria and Thrace.

Macedonia and Greece. — Macedonia soon became a seat of anarchy. To counteract this influence, Achaean and Eolian leagues were formed in Greece for the defence of Hellenic independence, but trouble sprang up between the two leagues and each in turn appealed to Rome for aid. This intervention gave the death-blow to Greece and in 146 B. C. it became a Roman province under the name of Achaia. Two years later (148) Macedonia itself fell under the Roman yoke. Greece had lost its independence, yet, now more than ever, it was to rule the world by art and literature.

Rome, now in close touch with the Greeks, was influenced by their superior talent and became the centre from which spread to all parts of the civilized world the love of learning and culture received from its new subjects.

Egypt. — The Lagi. — Of the three kingdoms that grew out of the dismemberment of Alexander's empire, Egypt can boast of the longest duration and greatest prosperity. Alexandria, the capital of the kingdom, was the centre of literature, science and

art. Its library is said to have contained as many as seven hundred thousand volumes. Before a century passed, crime and sedition had paved the way for the downfall of the kingdom and Egypt finally became a Roman province. (30 B. C.).

Church History. — In the division of the Empire of Alexander, Palestine was given to the king of Egypt. Accordingly Ptolemy II, Philadelphus and Ptolemy III, Evergetus, all mentioned in Sacred History, belonged to the dynasty of the Lagi.

Syria and Thrace. — **Seleucidæ.** — Syria and Thrace were given to Seleucus, who thus became the head of the dynasty of the Seleucidæ. The kingdom was made a Roman province in 64 B.C.

Church History. — Antiochus the Great, Seleucus-Philopator, Antiochus IV, Epiphanus, Antiochus Eupator, Demetrius Sotor, against all of whom the Jews struggled for independence, belonged to the dynasty of the Seleucidæ.

QUESTIONS. — 39. Locate Macedonia. Who preceded Alexander? — 40. How did Philip extend Macedonia? What project did he then form? — 41. How did Demosthenes oppose Philip's projects? How did Philip become master of Greece? — 42. What happened at the beginning of the reign of Alexander the Great? — 43. Relate the conquest of Persia by Alexander. — 44. How did Alexander conquer Central Asia? — 45. Where and when did Alexander die?

Synoptical table for review.

Macedonia.

		SITUATION	
		TERRITORIAL GROWTH	
PHILIP II	359-336	INVASION OF GREECE	Neighboring peoples Pydna, Amphipolis Thessaly, Chalcidice Thermopylae Sacred War Boeotia, Chæronea Treaty of Demades Corinth
		GENIUS REVOLTS	Conquered peoples Greeks
ALEXANDER THE GREAT	336-323	CONQUESTS	Persian Empire Central Asia India

HISTORY OF ROME

CHAPTER FIRST.

ROME UNDER THE KINGS.

TOPICS: *Situation. — Foundation. — The Seven Kings.*

SUMMARY OF EVENTS.

- I. — Rome is situated in the centre of Italy, a peninsula jutting out into the Mediterranean.
- II. — Legendary lore tells us that Rome was founded by Romulus in 754 B. C.
- III. — The Romans were first governed by kings. Romulus had six successors whose existence and history are equally doubtful.

LESSON.

- I. — **Situation.** — 1. Italy, a peninsula jutting out into the Mediterranean, is bounded by the sea on three sides and on the north by the Alpine chain. Rome is situated in the centre of Italy: its excellent position together with the energy of its inhabitants predestined it for the great part it was to play in the general history of mankind.



Italia.

II. — Foundation. — 2. The history of the first two centuries is obscure and full of fables. Legend ascribes the foundation of Rome, 754 B. C., to two brothers, Romulus and Remus. Romulus, having killed his brother, remained sole master of the city to which he gave his name. In order to people it, he offered refuge to all adventurers and even to fugitive slaves.

III. — The Sabines. — 3. The Romans carried off the daughters of the Sabines, their neighbors, and war broke out. The Sabine women rushed between their fathers and their husbands and effected a reconciliation. It was then decided that the Sabines would settle in Rome and the two peoples would unite.

The Seven Kings. — 4. Six kings succeeded the founder and conqueror, Romulus, who died in 714 B. C. Numa Pompilius, a peaceful king, gave religious institutions to the Romans and built the temple of Janus, which was opened during time of war and closed during intervals of peace.

Tullus Hostilius, a warlike king waged war against the Albans. This war was ended by the combat between the Horatii and the Curiatii.

In order to avoid unnecessary effusion of blood, it was agreed that three champions from each party would decide the issue of the battle. Three brothers on the side of the Horatii upheld the interests of Rome; while three Curiatii, brothers also, upheld those of Alba. At the first encounter, two Horatii fell and the three Curiatii were wounded. The surviving Horatius made a retreat of retreating so as to separate the three Curiatii whose wounds prevented them from pursuing him at an equal rate of speed. When he saw the Curiatii far enough from one another he returned and successively killed them. Rome was victorious, Alba destroyed and its inhabitants brought to Rome.

Ancus Martius built the port of Ostia at the mouth of the Tiber and undertook the conquest of the Latinum.

Tarquin the Elder was an Etrurian not a Roman; but he came to the throne by popular vote. He built the fortress of the Capitol and the great sewers or aqueducts which still drain the city.

Servius Tullius, although the son of a slave, displayed unusual ability. He made himself famous by reforming the Roman organization. He divided the people into five classes, according to fortune, not to birth.



Oath of the Horatii

The Horatii swear to conquer or die.

Tarquin the Proud effected the conquest of the Latinum. He was the proudest and most despotic of kings and thus rendered himself odious to his subjects. Weary of suffering, the Romans revolted, abolished the monarchy, exiled the Tarquins and proclaimed the republic (509).

Religion. — The Romans had gods innumerable. The people believed that a particular deity presided over every occupation and each event of man's life. They had household gods also, the *Mates* or spirits of dead ancestors; the *Penates*, the *Lares*, etc., and all these divinities were looked upon as powerful enemies.

whose hatred should be appeased by religious ceremonies. The religion of the Romans was wholly exterior. Provided that rites were observed and formulas pronounced, it mattered little what the interior dispositions might be.

Social Life. — During the reign of the kings the Roman people were divided into a number of families, probably three hundred. A clan or "gens" embraced all the families of the same stock, in the direct male line, having common religious rites. Later on, strangers who settled in Rome as well as the vanquished who had been brought there were placed under the protection of these "gens" or families and were called clients, while the members of the family were styled patrons or patricians. The plebeians, a division of the Roman people had nothing in common with the patricians nor had they any right of citizenship. The plebs comprised all those who had neither home nor worship.

QUESTIONS. — 1. Where is Rome situated? What influence had this situation on the destiny of Rome? — 2. Relate the foundation of Rome. — 3. What was the cause of the war between the Romans and the Sabines? What was its result? — 4. Give a summary of the reigns of the seven kings who governed Rome from 754 to 509.

Synoptical table for review.

Rome Under the Kings.

SITUATION	ITALY	Rome centre of Italy
FOUNDA-TION	ROMULUS : 754 B. C.	Remus Adventurer Slaves Sabines
	ROMULUS NUMA POMPILIIUS	Religion Temple of Janus
	TULLUS HOSTILIUS	Albans Horatii and Curiatii
THE SEVEN KINGS	ANCUS MARTIUS	Ostia Latium
	TARQUIN THE ELDER	Etrurians Capitol Great Aqueduct
	SERVUS TULLIUS	Origin Organization of society
	TARQUIN THE PROUD	Latium Tyranny Dethronement

CHAPTER SECOND.

PATRICIAN CONSULS. — (509-361)

Topics: *The Consulate. — The Decemvirate. — Invasion of the Gauls.*

SUMMARY OF EVENTS.

- I. — Two consuls, annually elected, governed the Republic. Their authority was shared by the Senate, composed of Patricians. Later on, the Plebeians obtained the right to have representatives in the magistracy. These representatives were the Tribunes.
- II. — Rome had no written laws. The Decemvirs, — ten magistrates elected for one year, were appointed to draw up a code of laws. These laws were written on twelve tables.
- III. — In 390, Rome was taken and a great part of it destroyed by the Gauls who agreed to quit the city on condition that a thousand pounds weight of gold should be handed over to them.

LESSON.

I. — **The Consulate.** — 5. The Patricians, tired of being ruled by kings, changed the monarchy to a republic; they however resolved on keeping the governing power in their own hands. Two of their number were elected consuls and endowed with power almost equal to that of king. They commanded the army, directed military operations, presided over the tribunals and supervised the treasury.

The Senate, composed of the heads of Patrician families, shared the authority of the consuls and formed the supreme state council whose privilege it was to frame laws; but before confirming these laws they were obliged to submit them to the *Comitia centuriata*. The first two consuls were Brutus and Collatinus.

Tarquinian Wars. — 6. For the space of fifteen years, the new Republic had to contend with the adherents of royalty. Conspiracies were formed in favor of the Tarquins, and neighboring kings, espousing the cause, laid siege to Rome. During the long struggle which ensued, Rome suffered several defeats but still came out victor, for Tarquin's cause was irrevocably lost.

Patricians and Plebeians. — 7. The Patricians had benefited by the revolution, but the Plebeian condition had been greatly aggravated by it. The Patricians had become masters of the commonwealth, consequently they alone could be consuls or senators, and take part in the assembly of the people, whereas the Plebeians, mostly soldiers, were subject to taxes and deprived of all civil rights.

Moreover the Plebeians had been unable to cultivate their fields on account of the frequent military campaigns. In order to provide for their wives and daughters they were forced to contract debts with the wealthy who, in consequence, treated them tyrannically.

Tribunate. — 8. In 493, reduced as they were to extreme misery and moreover exasperated by ill-treatment, the Plebeians revolted, abandoned Rome and retired to the Sacred Mount, where they founded a Plebeian city.

Alarmed at the sight of Rome thus depopulated and anxious to bring back the plebs, the Senate agreed to remit the debts of the insolvent Plebeians and to appoint tribunes to defend the interests of the people. These new

magistrates, first chosen among the Plebeians and later elected by the plebs only, had the right to oppose the decrees of the senators. Their veto sufficed to suspend a decision. Consequently these officers were exempt from prosecution or legal punishment.

The Tribune acquired immense power and gradually extended its influence till finally it became the leading authority at Rome.

II. — Decemvirate. — 9. The Roman laws were not written and the Plebeians were ignorant of them. The Patricians interpreted them to suit themselves, therefore, in 461, the tribune Terentilius, asked that a code of new laws be drawn up, published and made known to both classes. This request caused a violent storm of opposition and for the space of ten years, the Patricians refused to grant it.

Finally the Senate was forced to yield, and ten magistrates, called Decemvirs, were appointed to draw up these new laws, 451. These Decemvirs, elected annually, were given absolute authority. The first Decemvirs were moderate in the use of their power, but their successors (450-449) were violent and tyrannical and thus brought about the downfall of the Decemvirate (449).

The Twelve Tables. — 10. Notwithstanding the overthrow of the Decemvirate, their work still remained. Their laws written on twelve tables, were exposed to view in the Capitol. These laws granted the rights of citizenship to the Plebeians, and henceforward, the Plebeian appeared before the same tribunal as the Patrician and was judged according to the same law.

Civil equality prepared the way for political equality and in 367, the tribunes finally obtained for the plebs the rights to exercise not only public but also religious functions. The satisfactory reconciliations of the two parties was the first step towards the development of Roman power.

Foreign Enemies. — Rome while working out its political organization was also kept busy defending itself against the invasions of foreign foes; — the Etrurians, the Equi, the Volsci and the Veientes. The history of the fifth century presents a series of petty wars with which Roman pride has linked certain legends of heroic patriotism. Among them we find the story of Horatius Cocles who alone held the bridge against the whole army of Porsenna and afterwards swam across to the Roman Camp.

Another legend is that of Mutius Scaevola who held his hand over a brazier and calmly looked on while it was being consumed, in order to punish himself for having killed Porsenna's secretary instead of Porsenna himself.



Woe to the vanquished !

Invasion of the Gauls. — 11. In 390, Rome was on the point of being crushed by an invasion of the Gauls. Seventy thousand of these barbarians, under Brennus, their chief, invaded Northern Italy and marched towards the city. They were met by the Roman army on the banks of the small river Allia, a tributary of the Tiber. There the Romans were defeated. The Gauls then entered Rome, set fire to it and laid siege to the Capitol wherein the remainder of the Roman army had taken refuge. Worn out by famine the Romans were forced to capitulate, and the Gauls agreed to quit the city on condition that a thousand pounds of gold should be handed over to them.

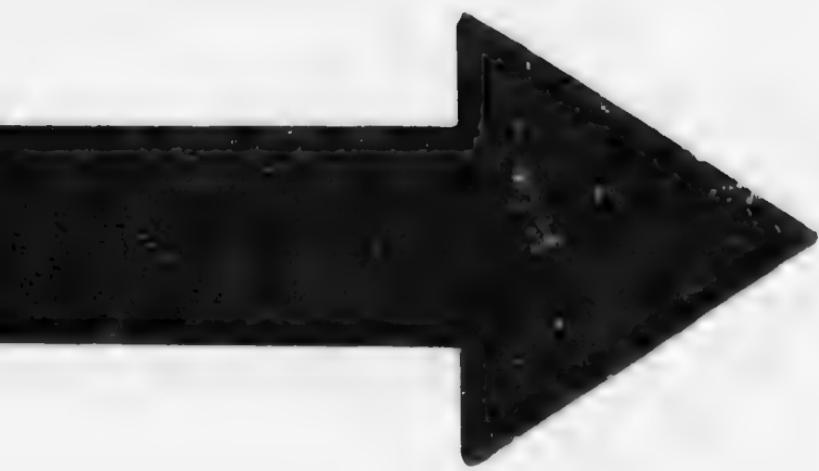
While paying the ransom, the Senate accused the Gauls of using false weights. Brennus thereupon threw his sword into the balance with the weights, recklessly exclaiming: "Woe to the vanquished!"

The Gauls then withdrew, but were overtaken by the Roman general Camillus who, with an army recruited in the neighboring cities, defeated them. Camillus rebuilt the burnt city and won the surname of the "Second Founder of Rome."

A second invasion of the Gauls, twenty-three years later, (367) was even less successful than the first; Rome was still left mistress of her own dominions.

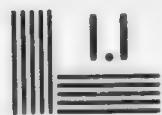
QUESTIONS. — 5. What form of government took the place of the monarchy? What power had the Consuls? — 6. With what struggles had the Republic to contend? — 7. What change regarding the Plebeians was effected by the Republic? — 8. Under what circumstances was the Tribune established? — 9. On what occasion was the Decemvirate founded? — 10. What were the privileges granted to the Plebeians by the Laws of the Twelve Tables? — 11. Relate the invasion of the Gauls.





MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART

ANSI and ISO TEST CHART No. 2



3.2

3.6

4.0

4.4

4.8

5.2

5.6

6.0

6.4

6.8

7.2

7.6

8.0

8.4

8.8

9.2

9.6

10.0

10.4

10.8

11.2

11.6

12.0

12.4

12.8

13.2

13.6

14.0

14.4

14.8

15.2

15.6

16.0

16.4

16.8

17.2

17.6

18.0

18.4

18.8

19.2

19.6

20.0

20.4

20.8

21.2

21.6

22.0

22.4

22.8

23.2

23.6

24.0

24.4

24.8

25.2

25.6

26.0

26.4

26.8

27.2

27.6

28.0

28.4

28.8

29.2

29.6

30.0

30.4

30.8

31.2

31.6

32.0

32.4

32.8

33.2

33.6

34.0

34.4

34.8

35.2

35.6

36.0

36.4

36.8

37.2

37.6

38.0

38.4

38.8

39.2

39.6

40.0

40.4

40.8

41.2

41.6

42.0

42.4

42.8

43.2

43.6

44.0

44.4

44.8

45.2

45.6

46.0

46.4

46.8

47.2

47.6

48.0

48.4

48.8

49.2

49.6

50.0

50.4

50.8

51.2

51.6

52.0

52.4

52.8

53.2

53.6

54.0

54.4

54.8

55.2

55.6

56.0

56.4

56.8

57.2

57.6

58.0

58.4

58.8

59.2

59.6

60.0

60.4

60.8

61.2

61.6

62.0

62.4

62.8

63.2

63.6

64.0

64.4

64.8

65.2

65.6

66.0

66.4

66.8

67.2

67.6

68.0

68.4

68.8

69.2

69.6

70.0

70.4

70.8

71.2

71.6

72.0

72.4

72.8

73.2

73.6

74.0

74.4

74.8

75.2

75.6

76.0

76.4

76.8

77.2

77.6

78.0

78.4

78.8

79.2

79.6

80.0

80.4

80.8

81.2

81.6

82.0

82.4

82.8

83.2

83.6

84.0

84.4

84.8

85.2

85.6

86.0

86.4

86.8

87.2

87.6

88.0

88.4

88.8

89.2

89.6

90.0

90.4

90.8

91.2

91.6

92.0

92.4

92.8

93.2

93.6

94.0

94.4

94.8

95.2

95.6

96.0

96.4

96.8

97.2

97.6

98.0

98.4

98.8

99.2

99.6

100.0



APPLIED IMAGE Inc

CHAPTER THIRD.

TOPICS: *War against the Samnites.* — *Pyrrhus.* — *Punic Wars.*

SUMMARY OF EVENTS.

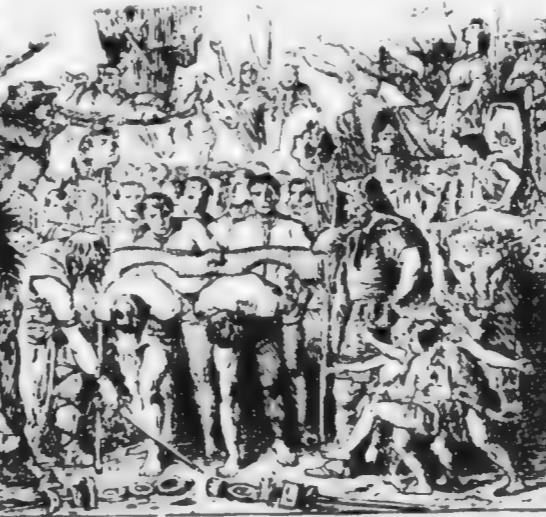
- I. — For more than half a century the Samnites, a highland people, maintained an almost uninterrupted war against Rome. They inflicted great defeats on the enemy but were finally conquered and forced to submit to Roman rule.
- II. — Pyrrhus, King of Epirus, lent his aid to Tarentum in a war with Rome. Although victorious at Heraclea and Asculum, he was defeated at Beneventum and had to abandon the cause of the Tarentines who surrendered to Rome.
- III. — The Punic Wars were long, cruel struggles between Rome and Carthage, lasting from 264 to 136 B. C. Finally the Romans were victorious and Carthage was destroyed.

LESSON.

It took Rome thirty years to regain all she had lost by the first invasion of the Gauls. In 343, strengthened by the union of the Patricians and Plebeians and already mistress of Central Italy, Rome felt prepared to undertake the conquest of the whole country which she effected only after a strenuous struggle of 78 years (343-265).

The Samnites. — 12. For more than fifty years (343-290) the war between the Romans and the Samnites was almost uninterrupted. During the first period which lasted from 343 to 311 the Samnites were unaided but in the second from 311 to 290, they were helped by their allies.

First Period. — First War. — (343-311). — 13. The Samnites were rude and warlike highlanders. Tempted by the rich plains of Campania, they threatened Capua,



Roman army passing under the yoke.

which gave its allegiance to Rome so as to avoid falling into the hands of the Samnites. A Roman army under Valerius Corvus, conquered the Samnites who sued for peace (311).

Second War. — (327-318). — 14. Alarmed at the increasing power of the Romans, who having conquered Latium, were advancing into Campania, the Samnites renewed hostilities. Papirius Cursor twice defeated them

but in 321 Pontius Herennius brought upon the Romans the most signal disgrace their arms had ever known. He lured the legions into a narrow defile, where they were at the mercy of the enemy. They were compelled to lay down their arms and pass under the yoke — the greatest humiliation to which they could be submitted — in presence of the Samnite army. This is known as the battle of Caudine Forks. The Romans capitulated but the Senate refused to be bound by the disgraceful conditions exacted, and Rome avenged herself by driving the Samnites back into the Appenines and surrounding them with military posts.

Second Period. — Third War (311-305). — 15. After a truce of seven years, the Samnites with their allies, the Etrurians and the Umbrians again took up arms. The victories of the Romans under Fabius and Papirius Cursor ruptured this coalition and the Samnites who were ruined by the devastation of their country then sued for peace (305). They were allowed to retain their territory provided they paid homage to Rome.

Fourth War. — (300-290). — 16. The Samnites were too haughty to accept even involuntary servitude. Assisted by the Etrurians, the Sabines, the Umbrians and later by the Umbrian Gauls they again revolted (300). The Senate opposed them with 40,000 Romans and 50,000 auxiliary troops. Again Fabius defeated the coalition. So fiercely did they fight that in one single battle, that of Aquilonia, as many as 30,000 Samnites were left dead on the battle field and the remainder of the nation was completely overcome in 290.

When the Samnite delegates came to Rome to negotiate for peace, they found their conqueror, Curius Dentatus, taking his meal from a wooden bowl. They besought him to heed their legitimate requests, and, to win his favor, offered him a considerable sum of money. "Ah! said he, my poverty may have led you to hope that I might be bribed, but I would rather rule over those who possess gold than enjoy it myself."

Synoptical table for review**The Republic. — The Consuls. — (509-361)**

CONSULATE (509-361)	Two Consuls	Elected by the Comitia Centuriata
	POWERS	Administration Tribunals Treasury Public Works Army
	SENATORS REGAL WARS INTERIOR TROUBLES TRIBUNATE	Patricians Plebeians
	DECEMVIRATE	Written Laws Civil Equality

CHAPTER THIRD.

Rome: War against the Samnites. — Pyrrhus. — Punic Wars.

SUMMARY OF EVENTS.

- I. — For more than half a century the Samnites, a highland people, maintained an almost uninterrupted war against Rome. They inflicted great defeats on the enemy but were finally conquered and forced to submit to Roman rule.
- II. — Pyrrhus, King of Epirus, lent his aid to Tarentum in a war with Rome. Although victorious at Heraclea and Asculum, he was defeated at Beneventum and had to abandon the cause of the Tarentines who surrendered to Rome.
- III. — The Punic Wars were long, cruel struggles between Rome and Carthage, lasting from 264 to 136 B. C. Finally the Romans were victorious and Carthage was destroyed.

LESSON.

It took Rome thirty years to regain all she had lost by the first invasion of the Gauls. In 343, strengthened by the union of the Patricians and Plebeians and already mistress of Central Italy, Rome felt prepared to undertake the conquest of the whole country which she effected only after a strenuous struggle of 78 years (343-265).

The Samnites. — 12. For more than fifty years (343-290) the war between the Romans and the Samnites was almost uninterrupted. During the first period which lasted from 343 to 311 the Samnites were unaided but in the second from 311 to 290, they were helped by their allies.

First Period. — First War. — (343-311). — 13. The Samnites were rude and warlike highlanders. Tempted by the rich plains of Campania, they threatened Capua,



Roman army passing under the yoke.

which gave its allegiance to Rome so as to avoid falling into the hands of the Samnites. A Roman army under Valerius Corvus, conquered the Samnites who sued for peace (341).

Second War. — (327-318). — 14. Alarmed at the increasing power of the Romans, who having conquered Latium, were advancing into Campania, the Samnites renewed hostilities. Papirius Cursor twice defeated them

but in 321 Pontius Herennius brought upon the Romans the most signal disgrace their arms had ever known. He lured the legions into a narrow defile, where they were at the mercy of the enemy. They were compelled to lay down their arms and pass under the yoke—the greatest humiliation to which they could be submitted—in presence of the Samnite army. This is known as the battle of Caudine Forks. The Romans capitulated but the Senate refused to be bound by the disgraceful conditions exacted, and Rome avenged herself by driving the Samnites back into the Appenines and surrounding them with military posts.

Second Period. — Third War (311-305). — 15. After a truce of seven years, the Samnites with their allies, the Etrurians and the Umbrians again took up arms. The victories of the Romans under Fabius and Papirius Cursor ruptured this coalition and the Samnites who were ruined by the devastation of their country then sued for peace (305). They were allowed to retain their territory provided they paid homage to Rome.

Fourth War. — (300-290) — 16. The Samnites were too haughty to accept even involuntary servitude. Assisted by the Etrurians, the Sabines, the Umbrians and later by the Umbrian Gauls they again revolted (300). The Senate opposed them with 40,000 Romans and 50,000 auxiliary troops. Again Fabius defeated the coalition. So fiercely did they fight that in one single battle, that of Aquilonia, as many as 30,000 Samnites were left dead on the battle field and the remainder of the nation was completely overcome in 290.

When the Samnite delegates came to Rome to negotiate for peace, they found their conqueror, Curius Dentatus, taking his meal from a wooden bowl. They besought him to heed their legitimate requests, and, to win his favor, offered him a considerable sum of money. "Ah!" said he, "my poverty may have led you to hope that I might be bribed, but I would rather rule over those who possess gold than enjoy it myself."

The Allies. — 17. The Samnites had been subdued but their allies again united against Rome. They, in turn, were conquered and in 280, Latium, Campania, Etruria, Apulia and Umbria became Roman possessions. The Romans, now masters of northern Italy, had but to conquer Southern Italy.

II. Pyrrhus. — 18. In the south of Italy, there were Hellenic colonies called Greater Greece, of which Tarentum was the most flourishing town. The Tarentines imprudently provoked Rome by insulting its sailors and ambassadors. War followed and Tarentum was obliged to appeal for help to the neighboring cities and even to Pyrrhus, king of Epirus in Greece. Pyrrhus crossed into Italy with an army of 25,000 men and twenty elephants. The Romans, unaccustomed to this mode of fighting with elephants, were routed at Heraclea (280). After defeating them a second time at Asculum (279) Pyrrhus was completely vanquished at Beneventum (275). The king of Epirus then withdrew into Greece. Tarentum, left to itself, surrendered and in 265 after nearly one hundred years of struggle, Rome had made such conquests in Italy that her dominions extended from the Po to the Strait of Messina.

In order to strengthen its hold on the countries subdued, Rome paid special attention to their political organization. Some of the conquered places became Roman cities and their inhabitants possessed all the rights of Roman citizenship; others were only municipalities whose inhabitants could neither vote at Rome nor be eligible to any public office, while others still, which Rome had contemptuously refused to annex, retained a certain independence and were looked upon simply as allied cities.

Order was maintained by Roman colonies, or military posts established in the vanquished lands. Moreover, it was in the interests of these conquered nations to be on good terms with Rome so as to keep or to acquire the title of Roman citizenship, which to them was of paramount importance.

III. — Punic Wars. — Causes. — 19. Carthage, a Phoenician colony, was mistress of the Northern coast

of Africa as well as the Western Mediterranean, together with Corsica and Sardinia. The relations between the Carthaginians and the Romans had always been peaceful until both coveted Sicily. Then began the Punic Wars, (264-136), so called from the word *Poeni*, meaning Carthaginian.

First Punic War. — (264-241). — 20. Carthage was a naval power, and in order to cope with her vessels Rome needed a strong fleet; consequently she built one hundred and sixty ships within sixty days. The Romans provided their ships with a drawbridge. As soon as a Carthaginian ship came near enough to a Roman vessel this gangway was allowed to fall on the approaching galley and the Roman soldiers, rushing along the drawbridge were soon engaged in a hand to hand conflict with their enemies. At the promontory of Mylae, the Consul Duilius gained the first naval victory, (260) and defeated the Carthaginians who lost three thousand men and fourteen galleys.

Regulus, the second consul, after a brilliant naval victory off the coast of Sicily, pursued the Carthaginians as far as Africa and proceeded to Tunis which he seized. Pursued in turn by Xanthippus, a Laedemonian officer in the service of Carthage, Regulus was defeated and made prisoner.

The Carthaginians sent Regulus to Rome for the purpose of obtaining an exchange of prisoners and negotiating peace. They were confident that being their prisoner, he would urge his country to accept their proposals. Before he set out they exacted his promise to return to his chains, if he failed in his mission. On arriving in the Senate he voted against the exchange of captives, for: "The Roman prisoners are old and lame," said he, "whereas the Carthaginian prisoners are young and vigorous, reject all proposals, and push on to victory."

Regulus, true to his promise, returned to Carthage, to bravely endure torture and death.

The war was now renewed on both sides. For six years, the Carthaginian general Hamilcar Barca, kept the

Roman armies at bay; but a brilliant victory won by the Romans near the Aegates Islands, forced the Carthaginians to sign a disadvantageous treaty of peace, binding them to pay a heavy ransom and to evacuate Sicily.



Regulus leaving for exile.

Filled with pride at their victory over the Carthaginians, the Romans strove to extend their rule. On the west, despite treaties of peace they took possession of Corsica and Sardinia. On the east they occupied Illyria, thus gaining the mastery of the Adriatic; on the north, after a struggle of twelve years, they succeeded in crushing the Cisalpine Gauls and holding sway over the entire valley of the Po.

While the Romans were thus enlarging their dominions, Carthage was violently torn by internal dissensions. The mercenaries, of whom the greater part of the Carthaginian army was composed, demanded their pay which had long since been kept back. This war, called the Inexpiable War on account of its atrocities, threatened the very existence of Carthage. Hamilcar Barca exterminated the rebels and then began the conquest of Spain, which was achieved by his sons Hasdrubal and Hannibal.

Second Punic War.—22. The Carthaginians signed because they could not keep up hostilities; but they seized the first opportunity of breaking the treaty. They besieged

Saguntum, a Spanish city in alliance with Rome. The Senate protested, but Carthage continued its work of destruction and when the city fell, Rome declared war. This second Punic War may be divided into two periods. In the first from 218 to 216, Hannibal the Carthaginian commander was brilliantly successful; in the second from 216 to 202, difficulties and defeats caused his gradual downfall.

First Period. — 218 to 216. — 23 Hannibal was but twenty-seven when placed at the head of the Carthaginian forces, yet he proved himself one of the greatest military geniuses of antiquity. Resolving to humiliate the Romans, for whom he nourished a profound hatred, he formed the bold design of carrying the war into Italy.

He crossed the Pyrenees, the Rhone and the Alps — the most conspicuous march in military annals — entered Italy and swept before him the Roman forces who, under Scipio, opposed him on the banks of the Ticinus. Sempronius on the Trebia, coming to the aid of Scipio was defeated. The following year, (217) he inflicted a bloody defeat on Flamininus near lake Trasimenus.

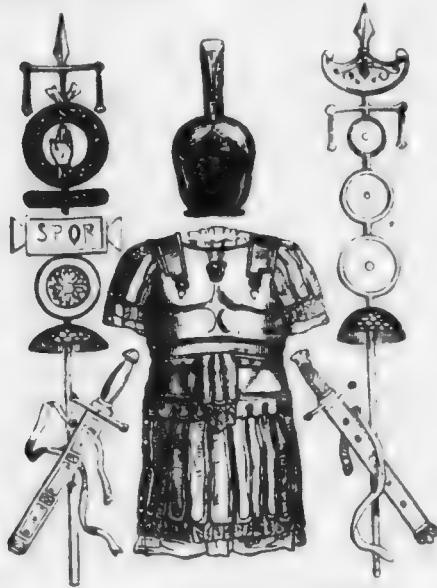
Checked for a while in his victorious march by Fabrius Cunctator the Crafty, who avoided all open engagements and contented himself with harassing the Carthaginians, Hannibal took revenge at Cannæ (216) inflicting on the Romans under Varro, the most terrible overthrow they had hitherto experienced. From seventy to eighty thousand Romans were killed, among whom were the consul Paulus Aemilius, eighty senators, and such a large number of knights, that Hannibal sent to Carthage three bushels of gold rings taken from the fingers of the slain.

Second Period. — 216 to 202. — 24. Rome displayed heroic courage and constancy; its patriotism kept pace with the danger and a new army of 100,000 men was formed. Moreover, Rome could count on its allied towns for protection. The wise politics of the Senate had close-

ly bound them to the republic and the greater number considered the Roman cause theirs.

On the other hand, Hannibal was exhausted by his very victories, and Carthage refused reinforcements. Thus he could succeed only by creating new enemies for Rome. Hannibal persuaded Syracuse to take sides with him, Capua to open its gates before him, and Philip of Macedon to take up arms ; still he did not succeed. By the wonderful policy and energy of the Senate, Philip V was defeated in Greece. Hannibal was forced to evacuate Capua, and Syracuse was, despite its fortifications and the inventions of Archimedes, retaken by Marcellus.

Hasdrubal, the brother of Hannibal, while bringing the latter a new army from Spain, was met on the banks of the Metaurus by Claudius Nero who defeated and killed him.



Roman arms and ensigns.

Meanwhile the young Publius Scipio took the city of New Carthage from the Carthaginians and conquered the whole of Spain in five years (206-201.) He then obtained permission to pass over into Africa ; Carthage being threatened by Scipio hastily recalled Hannibal to his country's aid. It was with feelings of intense indignation that Hannibal left Italy where he had been struggling for sixteen years.

In the year 202 he engaged in the decisive battle against Scipio at Zama where he was defeated ; thus the

glory of Cannae was forgotten in the defeat of Zama. By the peace treaty which followed, Scipio insisted upon the Carthaginians restricting themselves to Africa, hence the surname "Africanus". The Second Punic War ended in 201.

This was considered an unfortunate treaty, for Carthage was obliged to abandon Spain ; to pay 10,000 talents (about 12 million dollars) ; to give up its fleet except ten galleys, its elephants, its prisoners, and to promise that in future it would wage no war even in Africa without the consent of the Romans.

Thus Carthage retained but a shadow of independence. It ceased to be a naval power, whereas Rome had command of the whole western part of the Mediterranean.

Third Punic War. — 25. (149-146). After the disaster at Zama, Carthage through the genius of Hannibal, rose stronger than ever. This indomitable warrior restored the finances of his country, reorganized the army and prepared a coalition of nations against Rome.

The Senate alarmed at this, succeeded in exiling the great man and provoking Massinissa, king of Numidia (to-day Algeria) the Roman ally, to take up arms against Carthage. The repeated encroachments of this prince on their territory forced the Carthaginians to appeal more than once to Rome: the latter always decided in favour of its ally. Provoked beyond endurance, the Carthaginians finally attempted to repulse the invasion of the enemy by force of arms. Immediately alleging that the treaty of 201 had been violated, Rome sent an army under Scipio Emilianus into Africa. After useless negotiations and concessions, Carthage defended itself with incredible tenacity. At the end of a year's siege, it fell under the power of the Romans who destroyed it entirely and the whole African country thus became a new Roman province (146).

Eastern Conquests. — **Macedonia.** — Rome did not forget that during the second Punic War, Philip V of Macedon had taken

sides with Hannibal, so after having overcome the Carthaginians, she turned her arms against the Macedonians. After a campaign which lasted three years (200-197), Flaminius, defeated Philip V at Cynoscephalæ (Dogs' Heads) and compelled him to abandon all his possessions in Greece.

Perseus, son and successor of Philip, premeditated revenge upon the Romans. He, therefore, declared war and defeated the Romans in three great battles, but Paulus Emilius, son of the consul who had perished at Cannæ, crushed Perseus at the plain of Pydna (168) and brought him prisoner to Rome. Macedonia, deprived of its king, preserved a mere shadow of liberty and at length in 146, was reduced to a Roman Province.

Syria. — Antiochus the Great, king of Syria, at the instigation of Hannibal who had sought refuge at the court, took up arms against Rome. He was defeated in Greece and in Asia by Scipio Asiaticus, brother of Scipio Africanus, and was compelled to relinquish all claim to Asia Minor (190); after the defeat of Antiochus, Hannibal's surrender was demanded and, rather than fall into the hands of his implacable enemies, he took poison.

Greece. — After the victory of Cynoscephalæ, Flaminius proclaimed the liberty of all Greeks formerly subjects of Macedonia; but he was careful to cherish certain dissensions in Greece, which, while weakening the country, prepared its downfall. Above all, he strove to destroy the Achaean League, and succeeded in doing so after the battle of Pydna, by exiling a thousand noble Achaeans. This was the death blow of Greece which became a Roman province under the name of Achaia (146).

Later, in 129, the kingdom of Pergamus became the Roman province in Asia. Thenceforth, Rome was mistress of the East.

Conquest of the West. — Cisalpine Gaul. (203-163) — Forty years of stubborn fighting was necessary to give Rome the ascendancy in Cisalpine Gaul.

Spain. — The conquest of Spain was effected only after an intense struggle of sixty years.

By the year 133, Rome had achieved the conquest of the world, and her rule extended from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pontus Euxinus and from the Alps to the Atlas Mountains.

QUESTIONS. — 12. Into how many periods may the war between the Romans and the Samnites be divided? 13. What was the cause of the first Samnite war? How long did it last? What was its result? — 14. Why did the Samnites renew the war? How long did it last? What was its consequence? — 15. Give the cause and result of the third war between the Romans and the Samnites. — 16. Did the Samnites accept the slavery resulting

ing from their third war? What new alliances did they form? How did this fourth war end? — 17. Did Rome wage war against their allies after the surrender of the Samnites? Relate the struggle against Pyrrhus. — 18. On what occasion did Rome and Carthage become enemies? How long did they contend with each other? — 19. Sketch the First Punic War. — 20. When did the Second Punic War break out? How long did it last? — 21. Relate the victories of Hannibal from 216 to 207. — 22. What were the events of the Second Punic War? On what conditions did Carthage obtain peace? — 23. On what pretext did Rome declare war a third time against Carthage? What was the result of the war?

CHAPTER III.

Synoptical table for review.

WAR AGAINST THE SAMNITES (343-290)	FIRST WAR (343-341)	Campania Valerius Corvus Capua
	SECOND WAR (327-318)	Latium Caudine Forks Military posts
	THIRD WAR (311-307)	Etrurians, Umbrians Fabius Papirius Cursor Roman inactivity
	FOURTH WAR (300-290)	Etrurians, Sabines Umbrians, Gauls, Fabius Curius Dentatus Samnite defeat
	PYRRHUS	Heraclea Asculum Beneventum
	TARENTUM	

Synoptical table for review.—Continued.

PUNIC WARS (264-146)	FIRST WAR (264-241)	Duilius Regulus Hamilcar Barca Aegates Islands
	SECOND WAR (218-202)	Saguntum, Hannibal Ticinus, Trebia, Trasimene Canæ Capua, Syracuse, Macedonia Hasdrubal Carthaga Nova Zama Peace of 201
	THIRD WAR (149-146)	Massinissa Scipio Aemilianus Carthage

CHAPTER IV.

CIVIL WARS.

TOPIC: *The Gracchi. — Marius and Sulla. — Cicero.*

SUMMARY OF EVENTS.

- I. — Two brothers, Tiberius and Caius Gracchus, the Gracchi, endeavored by the distribution of lands to better the condition of the numberless beggars in Rome. This project was opposed by the noblemen and the two brothers were assassinated.
- II. — Marius, a popular leader, was a rival of Sulla a representative of the aristocratic party. Each in turn was master of Rome and enacted terrible proscriptions against his adversaries. Sulla gave Rome a new constitution.
- III. — Cicero, the greatest of Roman orators, saved Rome by exposing to the Senate the conspiracy of Catiline. The latter had plotted to overturn the Republic after having massacred the principal citizens.

LESSON.

Rome's moral greatness waned in the same proportion as her territory expanded. The spoils of subdued provinces, no less than the ideas and vices imbibed from the conquered nations, had greatly corrupted the customs and social organization of the Roman people. Cato, the censor, wished to bring back the Romans to their old frugal customs, but the evil was too deep-rooted to be overcome by superficial reforms. Rome was divided into two classes: the rich, greedy and ambitious, whose lands, cultivated by slaves, comprised the whole of Italy; the poor, idle and degraded, whose number increased daily, and who lived almost

exclusively in Rome. The Republic was disturbed by internal dissensions between these two classes and civil wars were unavoidable.

I. — The Gracchi. — 25. Cornelia, daughter of Scipio Africanus, was the mother of the Gracchi, Tiberius and Caius Gracchus. Having been left a widow when young, Cornelia herself undertook the education of her two sons whom she looked upon as her most precious jewels.

Eloquent, generous and full of love for their country, the two brothers in turn became tribunes: the tribunes were then the real leaders of the government.

The Gracchi declared themselves in favor of the people. Of the idlers who thronged the city they wanted to make useful citizens by giving them lands to cultivate, thereby inculcating habits of good order and morality. By this means they would be withdrawn from the degradation of slavery to which they had been reduced by their poverty.



Cornelia pleading with Caius to renounce his project of popular reform.

They then proposed to enforce the Agrarian law which decreed that the lands, obtained by conquest, should be equally divided among the people. This measure which was strongly opposed by the patricians ended fatally for the Gracchi who died victims of their project. Tiberius, the older of the two, was beaten to death in the streets of Rome by the aristocratic party (132).

Nine years later (123) Caius having been elected to the tribuneship again proposed the Agrarian law and several other salutary laws to advance the welfare of the people. Caius incurred the same hatred as his brother. Being forced to flee, he ordered a faithful slave to kill him with his sword (121).

II. — Marius and Sulla. — Marius. 26. Marius though of obscure birth, distinguished himself in a war against the king of Numidia and later became illustrious by his victories over the Cimbri and Teutons.

Numidian War.— In order to extend his portion of the kingdom, Jugurtha, king of Numidia, assassinated his two cousins who were under the protection of Rome. The Senate then declared war but the first consul sent against him with an army was bribed by Jugurtha. The king was then summoned to appear before a tribunal at Rome but he again bribed a tribunus, thus putting an end to the angry proceedings. Jugurtha was allowed to leave Rome: "O base city," exclaimed he, "thou wouldest be on sale if a man were found rich enough to buy thee." Although Jugurtha was set free, still the war against him continued, and Metellus with Marius as one of his lieutenants, was placed in command of the army. They gained several victories but the war ended only after Marius had been elected consul. With the assistance of Sulla, Jugurtha was captured and brought prisoner to Rome, and Numidia became part of the African province.

Cimbri and Teutons.— The Cimbri and the Teutons, two powerful barbarian tribes from Northern Germania were, at that time, pillaging and devastating Western Europe. In 102 Marius exterminated the Teutons near Aix, north of Marseilles and in the following year 103, the Cimbri, near Arcelettes (Picardy).

Italy had trembled before the Germans; in their excessive joy at being delivered from these barbarians, the people conferred on Marius the title of "Third Founder of Rome".

Sulla. — Sulla, a young patrician, first came into prominence during the Numidian war; later he won fame at the battle of Vercelle, but it was only during the «Social War», ten years later, that, while fighting against the Italians, he reached the summit of his glory.

Social War. — (90). — 27. The Italian States since the conquest of Italy had fought under the banner of Rome and had been the chief auxiliaries in her various conquests, hoping thereby to secure the right of citizenship which Rome denied them.

In the Social War which ensued, Marius fought unsuccessfully against the Italians; whereas Sulla won several vic-



Marius.



Sulla.

tories and assured the final success of the Romans. At the close of the war, the Senate made concessions and granted the right of citizenship to all those who remained faithful or who had submitted promptly to their conquerors.

Rivalry of Sulla and Marius. — 28. During the civil war a spirit of rivalry sprang up between Sulla and Marius: the former was leader of the popular party; the latter was representative of the aristocratic party. This rivalry was openly manifested in the Pontic war and led to a series of civil wars.

Mithridates. — Despite the threats of Rome, Mithridates, king of Pontus, had extended his conquests over a great part of Asia

Minor; he had stirred up all the Eastern provinces against Rome, sent an army into Greece, and moreover had massacred 80,000 Romans in Asia.

The Senate had just committed to Sulla the leadership of the war against Mithridates, king of Pontus. Marius, desiring this honor for himself was irritated at the preference shown to Sulla. He therefore caused this nomination to be annulled by the people. Sulla, on receiving this intelligence, marched with his troops directly to Rome, entered it by force and set a price on the head of Marius. The latter was forced to flee and Sulla, triumphant, set out once more for Greece and Asia Minor.

Return of Marius. — Proscriptions. — 29. Sylla's departure gave courage to the popular party: Marius returned to Rome and then began a series of proscriptions — frightful massacres in which a multitude of illustrious friends of Sylla perished. For the seventh time Marius was named consul but he died after a few day's illness (86).

Pontic War. — 30. Meanwhile, Sulla was struggling against Mithridates; he took possession of Athens, won the battle of Chaeronea and Orehomenus and forced the king of Pontus to sue for peace. A treaty was signed which took from Mithridates all his conquests and ships and moreover obliged him to pay tribute (84).

When it was time to sign this treaty Mithridates was reluctant to give up his vessels. "What, then, do you leave me?" he dared ask. "The hand that signed the death warrant of 80,000 Romans," answered Sulla.

Return of Sulla. — Proscriptions. — Dictatorship. — 31. On his return to Italy, Sulla found the government in the hands of the partisans of Marius. With the help of his soldiers who worshipped him and of the armies raised by Metellus, Crassus and Pompey, Sulla overcame the popular party which had been strengthened by the majority of the Italians. He entered Rome and by new

proscriptions even more terrible than those of Marius, spread consternation amongst the inhabitants. All the citizens in the army, those holding public office and who had supported Marius were declared in a body to be public enemies. More than 100,000 citizens perished, and their goods were confiscated (82-80). Sulla, who caused himself to be proclaimed perpetual dictator and master of the republic, endeavored to restore the constitution. He established laws which weakened the influence of the people over the government, took all political power from the tribunes and restored chief authority to the patriots.

Sulla voluntarily resigned the dictatorship (79) and retired to the country where he gave himself up to licentiousness and died the following year.

The Great Pompey. — **Sertorius.** — 32. Sulla thought he had accomplished a lasting work, but the constitution which he had given to Rome and which had caused so much bloodshed, was to last only eight years. It was to be overthrown by the dictator lieutenant, whom Sulla had styled «The Great Pompey».

At first Pompey defended the interests of Sulla against the partisans of Marius who, commanded by Sertorius, had stirred up Spain. For four years, Sertorius resisted the armies sent against him but his assassination paved the way to an easy victory for Pompey.

He returned to Italy just in time to annihilate an army of slaves which Crassus had conquered (73).

War of the Slaves. — **Spartacus.** — Exasperated by all the sufferings inflicted upon them, eighty thousand slaves had risen at the call of Spartacus a gladiator, and had defeated several Roman legions. This war lasted almost four years, when Crassus overcame Spartacus and killed him. Pompey met the remnant of this defeated army on his return from Spain, and thought it cost but little to exterminate them, yet the people gave him the full glory of quelling the formidable rebellion and the consulship as a reward.

The aristocracy took offense at the pretensions of this young general whose success was due rather to his good fortune than to his valor. Irritated by this, Pompey now favored the democratic party. To please the people, he presented and upheld several laws which completely destroyed the constitution already framed by Sulla. Through his influence, the tribunes recovered all their rights (70). The Plebeians showed their gratitude by giving him the proconsulship of the seas in order to rid Rome of a dangerous nest of pirates — refugees from the army of Mithridates (67). In the following year, he fought against Mithridates himself and in a single brief campaign brought the war to a close (65).

War against the Pirates. — 33. When Rome became a prey to civil wars, it left its seas unguarded; a band of adventurers or pirates owning almost two thousand vessels plundered the seas and pillaged the ships laden with wheat sent from Africa to Italy, thus threatening Rome with starvation.

In three months, Pompey succeeded in clearing the Mediterranean of all pirates.

War against Mithridates. — 34. After the death of Sulla, Mithridates, king of Pontus, again took up arms. Lucullus who had been sent against him at first conducted the war with great success, but intrigues having caused Lucullus to be recalled, Pompey set out to complete the defeat of Mithridates, who to escape falling into the hands of the Romans put an end to his life. Syria, Phoenicia and Pontus were then reduced to Roman provinces (63).

Pompey took Jerusalem and reinstated the legitimate king, Hircanus II who had been dethroned by his brother, Aristobulus. Henceforth (64 B. C.), Judea was vassal to Rome.

Cicero. — Catiline. — 35. During Pompey's Eastern campaign Rome was threatened by a conspiracy under Catiline.

Catiline, a young nobleman whose ambition was as great as his profligacy and daring, gathered around him all the evil elements of the Roman nobility and populace. The Roman army was in Asia with Pompey; Catiline profiting by the occasion attempted to destroy Roman society and overturn the Republic. He gathered immense quantities of ammunition and placed the conspirators in different parts of Rome. At a fixed hour all were to set fire to quarters assigned them and under cover of the conflagration and the ensuing panic, the senate and the leading citizens were to be massacred. It would then be easy to plunder the city and take the power into his own hands.

Cicero, the greatest of Roman orators, was an honest politician whose patriotism was as remarkable as his eloquence. Famous already for his attacks against Sulla, he had the same year been chosen consul in preference to Catiline. By his vigilance he detected the conspiracy and eloquently exposed it to the trembling Senate in presence of Catiline himself. The conspirator fled from Rome, raised an army in Etruria, but was mortally wounded in battle (62). In three other orations against Catiline and his accomplices, Cicero won over the people and the Senate and had the majority of the conspirators put to death. This executive ability won for him the title "Father of his Country".

QUESTIONS. — 25. What was the aim of the Gracchi and how did they succeed? — 26. Who were Marius and Sulla? — 27. What was the Social War? What part did Marius and Sulla take in this war? — 28. On what occasion was the rivalry between Marius and Sulla disclosed? What events made it more apparent? — 29. What did Marius do after Sulla's departure for Asia? — 30. What victories did Sulla gain over Mithridates? — 31. Relate what happened on Sulla's return to Rome. — 32. Who destroyed Sulla's work? By what military success was this man first known? — 33. What was the War of the Pirates? — 34. Was there a second Pontic War? What Roman general was in command during this war? — 35. Who was Cicero? What was detected by him? How did he crush it?

CHAPTER IV.

Synoptical table for review.

GRACCHI	Tiberius	Violent death
		Caius Agrarian Law
MARIUS	War against Numidia. Victories over the Cimbri and Teutons Social troubles.	
RIVALRY	Marius leader of popular party. Sulla leader of aristocratic party.	
MARIUS AND SULLA	SULLA	His fame. Social War. Pontic War. Proscriptions. Dictatorship.
POMPEY	The Spanish War. The Slaves' War. New Constitution. War against Mithridates. War against the Pirates.	
CICERO	Catiline's Conspiracy. Orations against Catiline.	

CHAPTER FIFTH.

THE REPUBLIC. — THE TWO TRIUMVIRATES.

Tories: Civil War Under the Two Triumvirates.

SUMMARY OF EVENTS.

- I. — Pompey, Crassus and Cæsar together ruled the Republic and thus formed The First Triumvirate. After the death of Crassus, war broke out between Cæsar and Pompey. The latter was killed leaving Cæsar sole ruler of the Republic.
- II. — Cæsar having been assassinated, a Second Triumvirate was formed by Octavius, Antony and Lepidus. The new triumvirs massacred their personal enemies. Having succeeded in removing Lepidus, Octavius declared war against Antony and defeated him at Actium. He thus became master of the whole Roman Empire.

LESSON.

I. — **First Triumvirate.** — 36. On his return from Asia, Pompey did not receive from the Senate the welcome he expected. While in Asia he had adopted certain measures all of which were opposed by the Senate.

Out of spite Pompey formed with two ambitious politicians, Crassus and Cæsar, a secret alliance known in history as the "Triumvirate". The members promised to unite their efforts to dominate the people, the Senate and the whole government (60).

Crassus. — 37. Crassus had proved himself a fairly good general in the war against Spartacus; but failing

came to him, not through popularity, but through his fabulous riches.

Cæsar. — Julius Cæsar belonged to a patrician family, although through policy he had identified himself with the plebeian party. He had all the ambition of Marius, his uncle, to which he added superior genius of his own.

Sulla recognizing in Cæsar a dangerous rival, strongly desired his death, for, said he, "I foresee many a Marius in that young lad."

Cæsar having been appointed to the consulship (59) was the first to benefit by the triumvirate. Despite the opposition of the second consul, he at once had a new Agrarian Law promulgated. This law divided the public lands among poor citizens who had more than three children. Cæsar ruled independently of the Senate. Furthermore in order to rid himself of Cicero, the recognized leader of the aristocracy, he succeeded in having him sent into exile. The road being now clear and his consulship ended, Cæsar had himself appointed ruler of Cisalpine Gaul with the mission of conquering Transalpine Gaul.

Conquest of Gaul. — 38. Gaul, with a population of six or seven millions, comprised the country between the Atlantic, the Rhine, the Alps and the Pyrenees. The inhabitants, though a brave class of people, were disunited by factions, consequently one tribe after another was conquered and, in the year 54, Julius Cæsar already considered himself master of Gaul, although war had not yet really begun.

A young Gaul, having been chosen as "Vercingetorix" (commander in chief), marvellously succeeded in uniting the Gauls and getting them to combine their strength against the common enemy. He defeated the Romans at Gergoria but was in turn hemmed in by his enemies in Alesia, whence he could not be released even by an army of 240,000 Gauls who had come from all parts of the country to assist him. In despair Vercingetorix

delivered himself up to the Romans, thereby hoping to win favor from the Gauls (52).

Cæsar should have respected his noble prisoner, but contrary to all civilized principles he had him thrown into a dark prison. Two years later the captive chief was withdrawn from his dungeon, brought to Rome, chained to the wheels of Cæsar's chariot and forced to walk through the streets of the city to grace the conqueror's triumph (46 B.C.). Not satisfied with this humiliation, Cæsar ordered him to be beheaded.

Cæsar and the Senate. — 29. Cæsar made it a point to publish throughout Rome the difficulties he met with in conquering Gaul. The Romans showed unbounded

admiration for Cæsar, but the Senate, foreseeing in him an indomitable master, sided with Pompey and recalled Cicero. The rupture between Cæsar and Pompey had now become inevitable. Crassus having met death in Parthia, Cæsar and Pompey were left to battle for the dominion of the world.

Civil War. — 40. Pompey, all powerful in Rome, requested the Senate to deprive Cæsar of both his authority and the command of the army, but Cæsar embold-

ened by the support of the people and the soldiers, took a firm stand against the Senate. Concealing his ambition he crossed the Rubicon, a small stream which marked the boundary of his province, and marched against Rome, under the pretence that his sole determination was to fight Pompey.

On hearing of Cæsar's approach, Pompey fled from Rome and the Senate, alarmed, took refuge in Greece. Within two months, Cæsar was master of Rome and all Italy.

Spain. — Greece. — Egypt. — 41. Instead of immediately pursuing his rival, Cæsar hastened to Spain where



Cæsar

Pompey's best troops were stationed. "Let us fight an army without a general", said Caesar, "then we will fight a general without his troops." The war in Spain was cruel and wearisome and Pompey's generals were finally compelled to surrender.

Caesar then passed over into Greece, overtook Pompey at Pharsala in Thessaly, and there gained a crowning victory over him (48). Pompey fled to Egypt to seek refuge, but was assassinated by order of the king, Ptolemy, who thus hoped to obtain the conqueror's favor. Caesar on his arrival was presented with the head of the fallen general but, turning his face from the sight, he gave vent to his feelings in a flood of tears. To punish Ptolemy for this perfidy, Caesar forced him to share his kingdom with his sister.

The Egyptians resented this interference on the part of a stranger, and in the struggle which followed, Ptolemy was defeated and while fleeing was drowned in the Nile. Caesar then placed Cleopatra with her young brother on the throne.

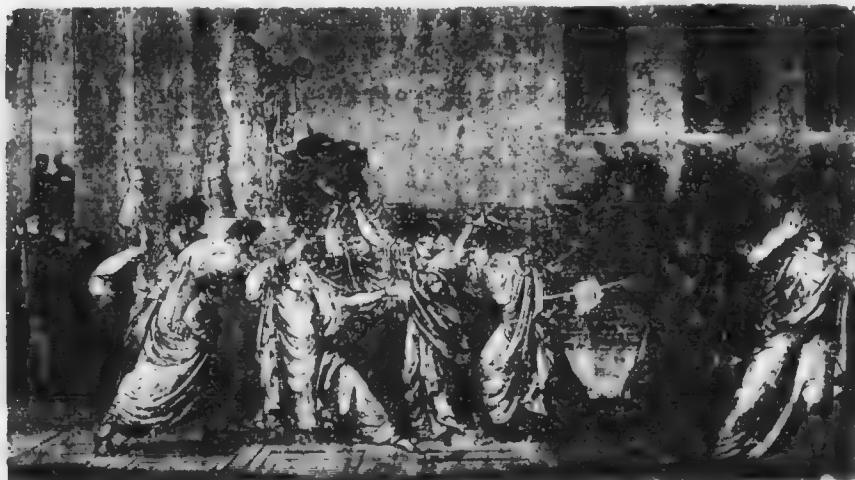
Asia. — Africa. — Pharnaces, son of Mithridates, headed a revolt in Asia and Caesar hastened to subdue him. His march was so rap'd that, in a letter to the Roman Senate, he described it in the celebrated words: *Veni, vidi, vici*, (I came, I saw, I conquered). This five day's campaign brought peace to the East.

Caesar immediately proceeded to Africa to fight the partisans of Pompey and won the victories of Carthage and Thapsus.

Triumph. — Dictatorship. — 45. To commemorate his victories, Caesar, on his return to Rome 46, held a four days' celebration. He had triumphed over Gaul, Egypt, Pontus and Africa but wisely refrained from lording it over his fellow-citizens. He was created perpetual Dictator, Imperator (commander in-chief of the army), Tribune, Censor and High Pontiff. Though now all powerful, he issued no proscriptions and displayed such

a spirit of justice and clemency that he was admired even by his enemies. In governing the Romans he sought the interest of the state, not that of a party. To better the conditions of the state, he encouraged agriculture and founded numerous colonies.

Death of Cæsar. — 44. The people joyfully accepted servitude under so wise and moderate a master, but the aristocratic party withheld their allegiance. A plot was



Death of Cæsar.

formed by Brutus, who was supposed to be the son of Cæsar, and Cassius, a friend of Pompey, whom Cæsar had spared after the battle of Pharsalia. These together with several other conspirators assailed him with their daggers and the Dictator, pierced with twenty-three wounds, fell dead at the foot of Pompey's statue, in the year 44, at the age of fifty-six.

Cæsar as master of Rome showed great magnanimity. He restored Pompey's statue in the Senate and recalled the political exiles. He generously forgave his adversaries and even conferred dignities on certain friends of Pompey.

The Dictator, warned of the plot formed against him, took no notice of it, unwilling to believe that such audacity and ingratitude could exist. At first he defended himself but seeing Brutus

whom he tenderly loved among the conspirators, he exclaimed "And you, too, Brutus!" then drawing his mantle over his face he resigned himself to his fate.

II. — Second Triumvirate. — Antony. — Octavius. — Lepidus. — 45. Mark Antony, a former lieutenant of Cæsar incited the mob against the murderers of the Dictator: their houses were burnt and Brutus and Cassius fled to Modena. Antony was named consul and remained master of Rome. He ruled so despotically that soon a rival appeared in the person of Octavius, nephew and adopted son of Cæsar. Although he was but nineteen at the time he possessed the skill of a consummate politician. He won the favor of the people by acquitting the legacies of Cæsar even at his personal expense, and that of the Senate by securing the good will of Cicero whom he called his father and whose advice he apparently followed. In virtue of his reputation, his liberality, and his promises he quickly attracted soldiers to his service and soon found himself at the head of an army.

The Senate began to fear Octavius and withdrew from his influence; on the other hand, Antony perceived that he was fast losing his power, and after trying to check Octavius, he saw that reconciliation was the safest



course to pursue. Thus Antony and Octavius with Lepidus, a lieutenant of Caesar, formed a Second Triumvirate (43).

Civil War. — Proscriptions. — 46. In order to control the State, the triumvirs had first to rid themselves of their personal enemies. This they did by proscriptions more abominable than those of Marius and Sulla. Lepidus sacrificed his brother; Antony, his uncle; Octavius, his first protector, Cicero. Over 300 senators were among the victims. In the meantime Brutus and Cassius, heads of the Republican party, having taken refuge in Macedonia, gathered a formidable army. Leaving Lepidus in Rome to maintain peace, Antony and Octavius marched against Caesar's murderers and defeated them at Philippi (42). Brutus and Cassius, resolving not to survive the liberties of their country, avoided the vengeance of their enemies by a voluntary death.

Government. — 47. The triumvirs then divided the world among themselves. Lepidus received Africa; Antony chose the East; and Octavius, Italy and the West.

Lepidus played an insignificant part in Africa. Octavius, basely enticed the troops of Lepidus to withdraw and usurping his provinces, left Lepidus nothing but his gold and the empty title of High Pontiff.

By his wise and skilful administration, Octavius gained daily in public opinion. Meanwhile, Antony lost a third of his army in a war against the Parthians. Then captivated by the charms of the beautiful Cleopatra, Queen of Egypt, he neglected his own interests and those of his country and in his blind infatuation bestowed upon this unworthy princess several Roman provinces. Octavius took advantage of this dissolute conduct to turn Rome against Antony. The Senate and the people urged him to declare war on Egypt.

Actium. — 48. The fleet of Octavius met the battle-ships of Antony and Cleopatra in the Ionian Sea near the promontory of Actium (31). The issue of the battle

was undecided until Cleopatra retreated with sixty of her vessels. Antony, caring little for those who were sacrificing their lives for him, boarded a galley and followed the Egyptian Queen. Then deserted by Cleopatra, he took his own life. Cleopatra strove to win over Octavius but, failing in her efforts, she ended her life by causing herself to be bitten by an asp.

Octavius remained master of the world. Egypt and Syria became Roman provinces; Asia Minor and Greece acknowledged Octavius as their sovereign; while the Parthians, the Armenians, and the Jews sent him ambassadors begging his protection. Octavius then confirmed Herod king of Judea and requested the census of his subjects.

QUESTIONS. — 36. What reason urged Pompey to form the First Triumvirate? Whom did he take as colleagues? — 37. Who were Crassus and Cæsar? Who was the first of the triumvirs to benefit by this alliance? — 38. Relate Cæsar's conquest of Gaul. — 39. While Cæsar was fighting in Gaul, what events were preparing the rupture of the First Triumvirate? — 40. What struggle took place between Cæsar and Pompey? — 41. Relate Cæsar's military exploits in Spain, in Greece, and in Egypt. — 42. What success did Cæsar obtain in Asia and in Africa? — 43. Describe Cæsar's triumph in Rome. How did he rule as Dictator? — 44. How did Cæsar die? — 45. What events followed Cæsar's death? Who formed the Second Triumvirate? — 46. Was Rome at peace under the Second Triumvirate? — 47. How did the triumvirs divide the world? How did Octavius treat his colleagues? — 48. What was the result of the armed struggle between Octavius and Antony? Of what new countries did Octavius become master?

Synoptical table for review.**The Two Triumvirates.**

FIRST TRIUM- VIRATE 60	POMPEY	Wealth War of the slaves Consul : Agrarian law Gaul Senate Civil War Spain Pharsalia Egypt Asia Africa Dictatorship, government Brutus and Cassius
	CRASSUS	
	CÆSAR	
SECOND TRIUM- VIRATE 43	PROSCRIPTIONS	Cæsar's lieutenant Africa Consul Triumvir East, Cleopatra Actium
	LEPIDUS	
	ANTONY	
	OCTAVIUS	Adopted son of Cæsar Cicero Triumvir Italy Actium Egypt and Syria Asia Minor, Greece Parthia, Armenia, Judea

CHAPTER SIXTH.

THE EMPIRE.

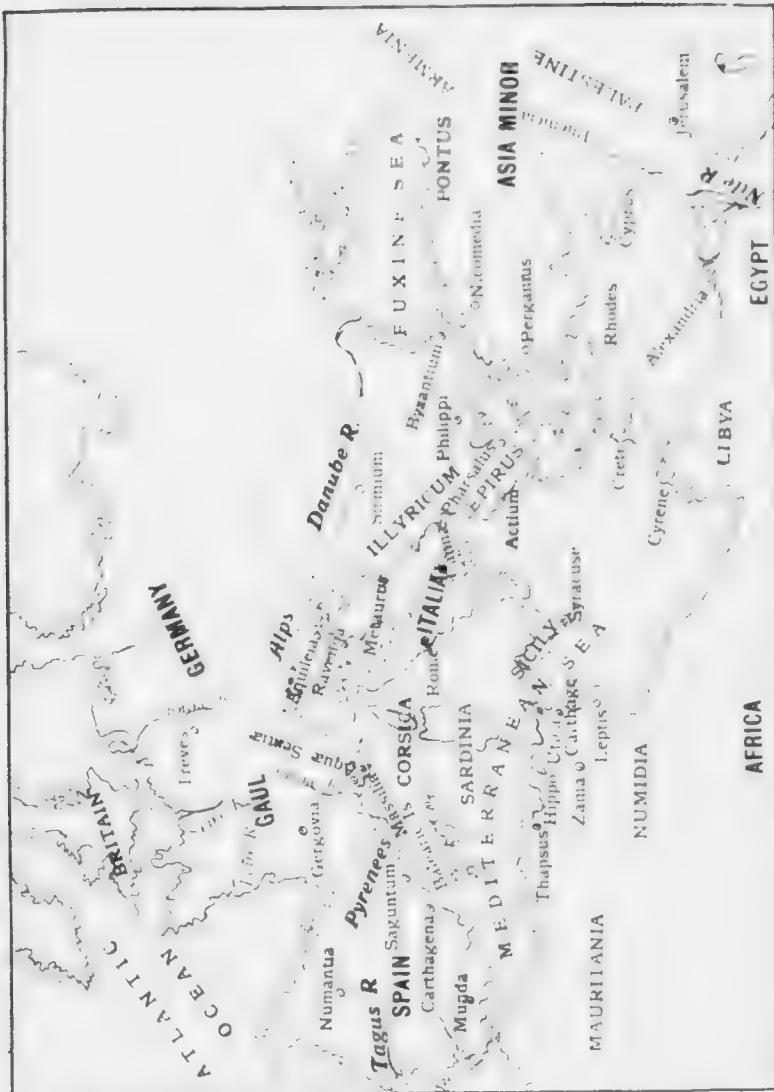
Topics: *The Twelve Caesars.* — *Constantine.* — *Division of the Western Empire in 476.* — *Fall of the Eastern Empire in 453.*

SUMMARY OF EVENTS.

- I. — Octavius, having become emperor, took the name of Augustus and ruled wisely. He was the second of the twelve Cæsars. After him came Tiberius, Caligula, Claudius and Nero, all four of the adoptive family of Augustus — able administrators but cruel princes.
Military anarchy successively placed on the throne in one year, Galba, Otho and Vitellus who were assassinated by their enemies. Vespasian founded the Flavian dynasty, and repaired the evils of the civil war. Titus was his worthy successor : Domitian was an execrable prince.
- II. — Constantine secured the triumph of Christianity in the Empire and founded Constantinople where he established himself with his court.
- III. — After the death of Constantine, the barbarians invaded the Roman Empire, gradually settled there and in 476, took Rome, thus becoming masters of the West. The Eastern Empire, of which Constantinople was the Capital, lasted till 1453.

LESSON.

- I. — Establishment of the Empire.—49. Rome exhausted by civil wars and longing for peace, hailed the advent of Octavius. He was a peaceful and wise ruler and



stroved to heal the wounds which he and others had inflicted on his country. During his rule the temple of Janus was closed.

Though now absolute master of the Republic, Octavius was careful not to abolish it openly, but he gradually

converted it into an empire. Apparently the form of government was not changed but he took to himself the power formerly enjoyed by the Imperator (commander-in-chief of the legions), the Tribune, the Censor, and the High Pontiff, thus making himself a real king, although without sceptre or crown. The Senate having now but a semblance of authority accepted this servitude because it brought peace and order to Rome; Octavius moreover satisfied the people by a free distribution of wheat and amused them by shows and games innumerable.

Rule of Augustus. — (29 B. C. - A. D. 14). — 50. Having become emperor under the name of Augustus, Octavius reigned forty-four years. Assisted by his able counsellors Agrippa and Mæcenas, he spent his reign in organizing the empire which comprised all the countries bordering on the Mediterranean, Spain, Gaul, Italy, the Balkan peninsula, Asia Minor, Syria, Egypt, Tunis, Algeria and Modern Morocco.

The provinces were ruled by legates who were responsible to the Emperor. The taxes were distributed with justice. New routes were constructed and military posts established for the protection of the State. The city of Rome was so embellished that Augustus could boast of having entered it a city of bricks and transformed it into a city of marble.

The Empire was now sufficiently extended and Augustus saw the necessity of defending it. Stationed fleets and camps on the frontiers served to protect it against pirates and the barbarians from the north of Europe, Asia, and from Africa. Towards the end of the reign of Augustus (A. D. 9), three Roman legions under Varus were annihilated by the Germans in a forest of Westphalia.

The Age of Augustus. — Besides restoring peace to the world, Augustus gave his name to the greatest century of Roman literature. Livy, (Titus Livius), Rome's national historian and the poets Virgil and Horace, sounded the praises of the prince who so generously gave them his protection.

Church History. — *of Janus during the*



Augustus.

Christianity. — Augustus closed the temple twelve years that peace reigned throughout the world. It was during this interval in the thirtieth year of the reign of Augustus that Our Lord Jesus Christ was born at Bethlehem in Palestine. The divine religion which Christ brought upon earth was to effect a wonderful transformation in Roman society then in the lowest state of degradation. And this change — the most marvellous ever accomplished — was effected without arms and without help, despite the persecutions and terrible cruelties of the emperors. Within three centuries, Christianity had spread throughout the whole Roman Empire. The successors of Augustus knelt before the cross, adorned their crowns with it and proudly placed it on the breast of their most valiant warriors.

Tiberius (14-37). — 51. Owing to the death of his children, Augustus had named Tiberius, his son-in-law, his successor. Tiberius was an economical administrator. At the beginning of his reign he affected mildness and moderation but he soon threw off the mask and appeared in his natural character as a cruel and odious tyrant. Seeing naught but plots around him he gave himself up to acts of violence, exiling or executing the noblest victims.

About the year 26, Tiberius retired to Capreae, an islet in the Bay of Naples, where he led a life of debauchery and gave himself up to the most ferocious instincts. A certain rock is still pointed out at Capreae, from which, at a sign from Tiberius, the victims were precipitated into the sea. As might be expected, this monster of cruelty met with a violent death, being smothered with pillows by a commander of the Praetorian Guard (37).

Church History. — *Galicia (37-41).* — The advent of Caligula, the grand nephew of Tiberius, was hailed with enthusiasm. During the first eight months of his reign,

this prince justified the expectations of the Empire, but later on, his mind becoming unsettled by a prolonged illness, he gave himself up to the worst follies and cruelties, which brought about his assassination (41 A. D.).

To give but one instance of his folly, he wanted to appoint his horse consul. He took such delight in cruelty that he wished all the Roman people had but one neck that he might despatch them at a single blow.

Claudius. — (41 A. D. - 54). — 53. Claudius, uncle of Caligula was then chosen by the Praetorian Guards, emperor of Rome. He was a man of eminent mind but of weak character; nevertheless, he ruled well and atoned for many acts of injustice. Humane laws were promulgated in favor of freedmen, slaves, widows and orphans.

Under this emperor, the provinces were carefully and liberally governed and the boundaries of the empire were extended by the conquest of Thracia, Lydia, and Judea. This reign, fruitful in great events might have been reckoned as one of the best if the weakness of Claudius had not tolerated the greatest abuses in his family.

Nero. — (54-68). — 54. After the death of his wife, the infamous Messalina, Claudius married Agrippina who influenced him to adopt her son, Nero, to the exclusion of Britannicus, his legitimate son and heir. Having satisfied her ambition, she then poisoned the Emperor.

Nero had for his preceptors Burrhus, a brave soldier, and the great philosopher Seneca, and seemingly benefited by his masters' lessons. The first years of his reign were marked by wise measures. Soon, however his perverse inclinations gained the ascendancy, and Nero surpassed Tiberius and Caligula in crime and cruelty. He poisoned Britannicus, killed his mother, Agrippina, and his wife, Octavia, as well as Burrhus and Seneca, his preceptor. He disgraced himself by becoming a stage clown and circus rider.

A nine days' conflagration destroyed the greater part of Rome. History does not furnish any proof that Nero was the author of this fire, but it tells us that while the City was burning, the emperor, harp in hand, on the summit of a tower, was heard singing verses describing the burning of Troy. This aroused suspicion and in order to avert from himself the blame of the public, the emperor accused the Christians and condemned them to horrible torments.

Church History. Incredibly cruelties were invented to be wrought upon the Christians: They were wrapped in skins of beasts and thrown to mad dogs to be devoured; they were steeped in pitch, tied to crosses placed at certain distances, and set on fire to light the Emperor's gardens by night.

St. Peter and St. Paul suffered martyrdom under this tyrant.

Revolts broke out in Gaul and in Spain; the Spanish legions acknowledged Galba as emperor; the Senate and Praetorians followed their example. Nero cowardly caused himself to be killed by a slave.

The adoptive family of Augustus whose rule was based on might not right was forced to rely exclusively on material strength; hence the military power was ever supreme, for the will of the army was always the law which created the Roman Emperors.

Galba. — Otho. — Vitellius. — (68-69). — 55. The army usurped the right of electing the emperor without consulting the Senate or the people. This encroachment brought on new calamities. Within a year the different legions elected three emperors — Galba, Otho, Vitellius — who soon perished in the civil wars. The legions in the East declared Vespasian emperor, and thus the Roman Empire had a few years respite.

Vespasian (69-79). — 56. The accession of Flavius Vespasian marks the beginning of the Flavian dynasty which gave Rome three emperors. Vespasian was wise, economical, brave and magnanimous; he became master

of the Senate and excluded all unworthy members. He re-established military discipline, reformed morals by the simplicity of his life, and by a strict economy so improved public finances that he raised sufficient funds to build the Roman Coliseum whose colossal ruins still elicit admiration.

Vespasian until the very end looked after State affairs. At the age of seventy two, feeling that death was at hand, he asked to be dressed, saying, "It is proper that an emperor should die in state."

Vespasian had just undertaken the siege of Jerusalem in order to quell a revolt in Judea when he was named emperor. His son Titus who was left in charge of the siege, took the City and destroyed it; 1,100,000 Jews were massacred and the survivors dispersed throughout the world.

Titus reigned only twenty-six months, being carried off by fever. His rare kindness and good-will won for him the surname of "The Delight of Mankind." He considered it lost a day in which he had done no act of benevolence.

The eruption of Vesuvius which ruined the cities of Herculaneum, Strabia and Pompeii took place in the reign of this Emperor (79).

Domitian. — (81-96). — 58. At first Domitian followed the example of his brother but, by degrees he became corrupt and disgraced himself by his cruelty and intemperance. Terror and consternation then reigned in Rome.

Church History. — Domitian cruelly persecuted the Christians; it was during his reign that St. John, after having been plunged into a cauldron of boiling oil, was banished to the Isle of Patmos.

Domitian was the last of the emperors commonly called the «Twelve Cæsars».

The Antonines. — The Antonines succeeded the Flavian and their rule marked the Golden Age of the Roman Empire. For most a century (96-192) the Antonines reigned with honor and

moderated. Each of them left the throne not to one of his own descendants, but to the most worthy citizen. The following princes were the most remarkable : **Trajan**, **Hadrian**, **Antoninus Pius** and **Marcus Aurelius**.

Trajan was styled *Optimus* because of his clemency. He favored industry, commerce, literature and art. He added Dacia (Roumania of to-day) to the Empire and pushed his conquest beyond the Tigris. There is however, one blot on his name, the persecution of the Christians, who though not hunted were punished when denounced.

Hadrian, an able ruler, visited all the provinces of the Empire and erected numerous monuments.

Antoninus Pius, the greatest Roman Emperor, was a real father to his subjects and ordered the Christians to be treated with tolerance.

Marcus Aurelius was a philosopher and general. Like Trajan he persecuted the Christians. With him ended the "Golden Age" of the Roman Empire.

During the century that followed the downfall of the Antonines (192-285), the Empire was at the mercy of the army. The latter proclaimed the emperors or massacred them according to their whims, thus paving the way for the decay of the Empire.

Septimus Severus, founder of the Syrian dynasty, was a brave warlike soldier who maintained order in the Empire, but unfortunately, he stained his memory by persecuting the Christians. The other Emperors of the Syrian dynasty were a disgrace to their name : Caracalla, killed his own brother, assassinated the Senate and massacred 20,000 of his brother's party. Heliogabalus, the worst of the Romans emperors, was a creature of vice, cruelty and extravagance.

Alexander Severus, the last of the Syrian Dynasty, was assassinated at the age of twenty-six.

Then came the period of military anarchy. Each army invested its general with the imperial purple. In only a few years many as nineteen emperors at the same time.

The noted Emperors of this period were : Maximin, the giant who persecuted the Christians; Decius, who incited the most terrible persecution of the Christians; Valerian, who ordered the eighth persecution. Having been made prisoner by the King of Persia, he was compelled to serve for five years, as a foot stool to the king when mounting his horse. Lastly came Aurelian who was also a persecutor of the Christians.

The dissolution of the Empire was imminent. The barbarians from the North were overwhelming it when **Diocletian** was named Emperor. He was a man of bravery and skill. He chose as a colleague **Maximian Hercules** to whom he gave the title of

Augustus. To assist them in looking after the frontiers, the two Augusti created two Caesars, Galerius in the East, and Constantius Chlorus in the West. In 303 Galerius forced an edict from Diocletian against the Christians. This was the last and last bloody of the persecutions.

II. Constantine. — 59. In 306 Constantine began to rule over Gaul, Spain and the Isle of Britain; however, it was only after a civil war of seventeen years that he gained the supremacy of the Empire.

Many competitors aspired to the throne, but at the battle of Milvian Bridge, in 312 Constantine defeated Maxentius and became master of Rome.

The reign of Constantine was signalized by two great facts: the triumph of Christianity and the foundation of Constantinople.

Triumph of Christianity. — 60. While master in Gaul, Constantine had shown considerable toleration towards the Christians and had many adherents among them. In 312, the Cross had become his imperial standard or Labarum, and the following year 313 he proclaimed the liberty of Christian worship by the famous Edict of Milan which granted liberty to the Christians in the West and religious toleration in the East. This act, inspired perhaps as much by politics as by religion, was welcomed with unbounded enthusiasm by the Christians.

The Emperor confirmed the triumphs of Christianity by the most significant acts. In 321, he made the Sunday a *fest* obligatory; in 325 he called the first great Council

of Nicaea in which three hundred and eighteen bishops condemned the heresy of Arius and constituted the hierarchy of the Catholic Church. At the same Council the Bishops of Rome, of Antioch, and of Alexandria received the title of «Patriarch».

Foundation of Constantinople. — (326-330). — 61. Rome being still the seat of paganism and filled with republican ideas, Constantine would not fix his seat

there. Moreover Rome was too far removed from the boundaries of the Empire, and for these reasons Constantine founded a new Capital and called it Constantinople. Rome was now but a Capital in name.

The New Rome of Constantine was none other than ancient Byzantium restored and enlarged. Constantine made of it a Christian city, built many churches and monuments, and prohibited therein the erection of any temple to the false gods.

In 381, the Bishop of Constantinople received the title of Patriarch and was considered in rank next to the Patriarch of Rome.

Government. — 62. Constantine completed the organization of the government of the Empire. He multiplied officers in order to lessen the authority of each, but this organization was defective, for he thought more of his own power and greatness than of the happiness and welfare of his people.

The expenses necessitated by this system of government required the levying of taxes which ruined the rate-payers, for some were obliged even to sell their children to pay off these taxes.

The last years of Constantine's reign, rendered illustrious by victories over the barbarians, were saddened by domestic tragedies.

Constantine died in 337, at Nicomedia, shortly after receiving baptism. Some hold that he was baptized several years before by Pope St. Sylvester II.

After Constantine's death, St. Helen, his mother, visited the Holy Land, caused the temples and idols to be overthrown, discovered the Holy Sepulchre and the Cross of Our Lord, erected the church of the Resurrection and rebuilt Jerusalem.

Julian, the Apostate. — Valentinian Theodosius. — Under Constantine's successors, the Empire again gave signs of its approaching downfall which had been retarded during the reign of the great Emperor, but was now being precipitated by the fresh attacks of barbarians.

Julian, the Apostate (361) tried to prevent this ruin. His military and political talents might have insured his success had

he not abandoned Christianity and become a pagan and a persecutor of the Christians. He labored to restore the old worship, thus sacrificing to his hatred and passion all political interests.

Valentinian, now Emperor, kept the West to himself and gave the East to his brother, Valens. Valentinian who was just, wise, and thoroughly Christian in his life successfully defended the West against the invasions of the barbarians, but in the East, Valens was conquered and killed by the Goths.

The barbarians made alarming headway, but Theodosius the Great, at first master of the East only but later of the West, prevented the downfall of the whole Empire by his victories over the Visigoths.

Theodosius proscribed Arianism and abolished all traces of pagan ceremonies in Rome. Still, history reproaches him with an act of cruelty inexcusable in a Christian

prince—the massacre of Thessalonica. After a riot in which the governor and several of his officers had been killed, Theodosius, yielding to an impulse of blind fury, gave the city over to the soldiers and within three hours, 7,000 persons were massacred.



Theodosius before Ambrose.

Theodosius being then at Milan, St. Ambrose, the Bishop of that city, excommunicated him and forbade him to enter the Church. The Emperor humbly accepted the penance and gained admittance to the Church only after decreeing that a law should be passed by which sentences of capital punishment could not be put into execution until an interval of thirty days had elapsed.

III. — Division of the Empire. — 63. At the death of Theodosius in 395, the Roman Empire was divided into the Eastern and the Western Empire.

By this division Rome was weakened, at a time when it was on the verge of sustaining the rudest and most numerous attacks.

The Visigoths, led by Alaric, first ravaged Macedonia, Thessaly and Greece. They then invaded Italy, took Rome, pillaged it and set fire to a part of it (409). These barbarians afterwards passed over into Southern Gaul and there founded a kingdom which extended over the greater part of Spain.

The Suevi, the Burgundians, the Alans, the Vandals and the Franks in turn swept down upon the Empire of the West; consequently in the middle of the fifth century the Franks were to be found in the north of Gaul, the Burgundians in the valley of the Rhone, while the Alans, the Suevi, and the Vandals had crossed the Pyrenees and settled in Spain.

In 451 the Huns, led by Attila, crossed the Rhine and overran Gaul. The tribes that had already settled in that country then united with the remnants of the Roman legions under the command of Aetius and together overcame Attila at Chalons-sur-Marne.

Rome, now delivered from Attila, found another enemy in the person of Genseric, King of the Vandals, who took possession of it in 445. From that day, the Western Empire hastened to its destruction and finally passed out of history in 476. Odoacer, King of the Heruli, dethroned the last heir of Augustus, Romulus Augustulus and took the title of King of Italy. Henceforward

Rome and the whole Western Empire belonged to the barbarians.

The Empire of the East, formerly known as the Greek Empire continued in history under the name of the "Byzantine Empire" until 1453 when, at the siege of Constantinople, it fell into the hands of the Turks.

QUESTIONS. — 49. What change of government did Augustus effect in Rome? — Did he meet with much opposition? — 50. What countries were then comprised in the Roman Empire? How did Augustus organize the government and plan the defence of the Empire? — 51. Sketch the reign of Tiberius. — 52. How did the Empire welcome Caligula's elevation to the throne? — Did this prince fulfil the hopes of the Roman people? — 53. How did Claudius come to the throne? Tell what you know of his reign. — 54. Who was Nero? How did he govern? — 55. What emperors succeeded one another from 68-69? — 56. What emperor founded the Flavian dynasty? How did he behave while ruling? — 57. Under what circumstances was Jerusalem destroyed? Give a summary of the reign of Titus. — 59. How did Constantine come to the throne? — What two principal events marked the reign of this emperor? — 60. Relate how Constantine brought about the triumph of Christianity in the Roman Empire. — 61. What reasons determined Constantine to establish himself at Constantinople? — 62. What was Constantine's policy? How and when did this prince die? — 63. Relate the invasion of the Roman Empire by the barbarians. When did the two Empires fall?

Synoptical table for review.

Rome as an Empire.

THE
TWELVE
CÆSARSCONS-
CONSTAN-
TINEDIVISION
AND
FALL OF THE
EMPIRE

JULIUS CÆSAR

AUGUSTUS

TIBERIUS

CALIGULA

CLAUDIUS

NERO

MILITARY ANARCHY

VESPAZIAN

TITUS

DOMITIUS

MAXENTIUS

CHRISTIANITY

CONSTANTINOPLE

WESTERN EMPIRE

EASTERN EMPIRE

Octavius Cæsar
Transformation of the
Republic into an Em-
pire.
Organization — Defence,
Varus.

Drusus
Cruelty
Capreae
Folly
Cruelty
Administration
Enlargement
Agrippina
Britannicus
Seneca, Burrhus
Burning of Rome
Persecution
Galba
Otho
Vitellius

Labarum
Edict of Milan
Sunday
Niceae
Byzantium
Christian city—Imperial
Frontiers
Rome
Alaric
Genseric
Odoacer
Constantinople
Byzantine Empire

INDEX.

Achæns	34	Cambyses	9
Achaia	17	Cannæ	80
Achaz	17	Carthage	80
Aegospotami	56	Catiline	100
Aeolians	34	Cato	95
Agrarian Law	97	Caudine Forks	85
Agrippina	117	Chaldea	14
Alaric	124	Champollion	4
Alcibiades	56	Chæronea	65
Alexander <i>the Great</i>	66	Cheops	5
Amasis	8	Cimon	51
Amphyctyones	43	Cicero	102
Anaxagoras	52	Claudius	117
Antigone	34	Cleopatra	110
Antoninus Pius	120	Coliseum	110
Apis	9	Constantine	121
Appelles	52	Constantinople	121
Arbela	67	Consulate	77
Archimedes	90	Cornelia	96
Areopagus	40	Council of Niceæ	121
Aristides	49	Cresus	25
Aristomenes	42	Curiatii	73
Aristophanes	52	Curius Dentatus	85
Ashur	16	Cushites	15
Ashurbanipal	18	Cyaxares	19
Assuerus	27	Cynoscephalæ	20
Assyria	14	Darius	27
Astyages	25	Decemvirate	79
Attila	124	Demosthenes	64
Babylonia	14	Dictatorship	99
Bethulia	18	Diocletian	120
Botha	14	Dorians	34
Brennus	80	Duilius	87
Brutus	109	Edict of Milan	121
Bucephalus	67	Egypt	2
Byzantine Empire	125	Epaminondas	50
Caligula	116	Ephestion	18
Cæsars, Twelve	119	Eschylus	52

Ethiopians	8	Massinissa	91
Euripides	52	Megiddo	8
Eurymedon	51	Milvian Bridge	121
Genseric	124	Menephthah	7
Golden Age of Rome . .	119	Menes	4
Gracchi	96	Messenian Wars	41
Granicus	67	Miltiades	46
Hamilcar Barca . . .	87	Mithridates	98
Hannibal	89	Meris	5
Hasdrubal	90	Mutius Scaevola	80
Hellas	33	Mycale	49
Hippocrates	52	Nabuchodonosor	8
Holofernes	18	Necho	8
Horace	115	Nero	117
Horatii	73	Ninus	15
Horatius Cocles . . .	80	Nimrod	14
Hyksos	6	Nineveh	16
Ionians	34	Nitocris	20
Issus	67	Octavius	115
Jaddus	67	Odoacer	124
Jerusalem, Siege of . .	119	Patricians	78
Joseph	6	Peace of Nicias	55
Josiah	8	Pelasgi	33
Judith	18	Pelopidas	50
Jugurtha	97	Peloponnesian Wars . . .	54
Julian, the Apostate . .	122	Pericles	51
Julius Cæsar	105	Pharaoh	4
Karnak	7	Phidias	52
Khamurabi	14	Philippics	65
Koyunjik	14	Phul	16
Labarum	121	Plateæ	49
Labyrinth	5	Plebians	78
Lagi	70	Pompey	100
Leonidas	48	Pontus Herennius	85
Livy	115	Porsenna	80
Luxor	7	Ptolemy	107
Lycurgus	37	Punic Wars	86
Lysander	56	Pyramids	4
Magi	27	Pyrrhus	86
Mantinea	60	Rameses	7
Marathon	46	Remus	73
Marcus Aurelius	120	Retreat of Ten Thousand .	57
Mark Antony	109	Regulus	87
Marius	97	Rome, Second Founder of	81
Massacre of Thessalonica .	123	" Third " "	97

Romulus	73	Sulla	98
" Augustulus . . .	124	Tarquinian Wars	78
Rubicon	106	Tiglath-Pileser	16
Sabines	73	Ten Years' War	55
Sacred Mount	78	Theban Wars	34
Sacred War	65	Themistocles	47
Saguntum	89	Thermopyla	47
Salamis	48	Theodosius the Great . .	123
Sannites	84	Thucydides	52
Sardanapulus	15	Tiberius	116
Sargon	17	Titus	119
Scipio Africanus	90	Trajan	120
Savior Birth of Our	116	Treaty of Antalcidas . . .	58
Scipio Asiaticus	92	Treaty of Demades	65
Seleucidae	70	Trojan War	35
Sennacherib	17	Triumvirate	104
Sesostris	7	Twelve Tables	79
Seven Chiefs	34	Tyrants, Thirty	56
Seventy Years' Captivity	19	Valentinian	123
Shepherd Kings	6	Vercingetorix	105
Sicilian Expedition	55	Vespasian	118
Social War	98	War of Slaves	100
Socrates	56	Virgil	115
Solon	39	Xenophon	58
Sophocles	52	Xerxes	47
Spartacus	100	Zama	90
St. Helena	122	Zoroaster	28
St. Ambrose	124		



